

The Bulletin

OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF

Secondary-School Principals

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1951-52

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The Bulletin

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THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

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Training and Experience Standards for Principals of Secondary Schools

PART I

INTRODUCTION

ORIGIN OF COMMITTEE

IN 1945, the Executive Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals requested the chairman of the Committee to undertake a study of the present status of requirements for the certification of secondary-school principals. Under the direction of the chairman, a preliminary study was made in 1945-46 by Burvil H. Glenn, then a graduate student in the Department of Education of The Ohio State University. After the results of this preliminary study were presented to the Executive Committee of the Association, an appropriation was authorized to provide for a detailed nation-wide study and to finance the activities of the Committee which was appointed later in the year. In the meantime, Mr. Glenn began the collection of data from the several state departments of education, the analysis of which was completed in 1947. This study furnished the Committee with valuable up-to-date information concerning the present status of certification.

COMMITTEE MEMBERSHIP

The following members of the Committee on Training and Experience Standards for Secondary-School Principals took an active part in the preparation of this report.

WALTER F. DOWNEY, *Headmaster*, English High School, Boston,
Massachusetts

A. M. ELLIOTT, *Principal*, Alexander Graham Junior High School,
Charlotte, North Carolina

BURVIL H. GLENN, *Professor of Education*, University of Buffalo, Buffalo, New York

WILLARD E. GOSLIN, *Formerly Superintendent of Schools*, Pasadena, California

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PAUL E. ELICKER, *Executive Secretary*, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Washington, D. C., *ex officio*

D. H. EIKENBERRY, *Professor of Education*, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, CHAIRMAN

COLUMBUS, OHIO, MEETING OF THE COMMITTEE

After considerable preliminary preparation, the committee met in Columbus, Ohio, for a two-day session on January 18-19, 1948. At this meeting, various aspects of the committee's work were discussed and broad guiding principles of certification were agreed upon. The following individual assignments were made for the drafting of the committee report: Mr. Goslin was asked to summarize the committee's thinking and prepare a statement concerning the purposes of secondary education. The required preparation and growth of the secondary-school principal were divided into four areas. The personal qualifications were to be summarized and a statement prepared by Mr. Elliott in collaboration with Mr. Downey and Mr. Sifert, general educational requirements by Mr. Harbeson, professional preparation by Mr. Eikenberry, and in-service growth by Mr. Glenn. Mr. Preston was asked to prepare a summary statement of policies with respect to certification.

THE REPORT

The committee's work was so organized in the Columbus meeting and the first draft of the report was in such form that the committee decided a second meeting would not be necessary. Instead, the chairman of the committee was instructed to secure the assistance of an outsider in preparing the final draft of the report. Marion J. Conrad, Research Assistant in the College of Education of The Ohio State University, gave very valuable service to the chairman in the preparation of the final draft of the report.¹

¹ Reprints of this 60-page report bound in stiff paper cover are available from the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201-16th Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C. at \$1.00 a copy with the following discounts on quantity orders: 2-9 copies, 10%; 10-90 copies, 25%; and 100 or more copies, 33⅓%.

Part II summarizes the present status of certification of secondary-school principals in the United States and sets the stage for the committee's report. The material of this chapter was adapted from the detailed study made by Mr. Glenn.²

In Part III the committee has described the role which American secondary education must play in the present world scene. If American secondary education is to measure up to its responsibilities, the highest type of educational leadership is necessary. Educational leadership depends upon a number of factors, the most important of which are the personal qualities of the individual, the nature of his educational preparation—both general and professional—and the extent of in-service growth. This Committee believes that future progress in achieving the objectives of secondary education as discussed in Part III can best be promoted by a nation-wide program involving the following aspects:

1. Encouragement of young men and women who have taught several years in a secondary school with conspicuous success, who possess to a high degree the personal qualities described in Part IV, and who have secured or are in the process of securing the general education discussed in Part V to prepare for secondary-school principalships.
2. Requirement of a minimum of one year of graduate professional preparation beyond the four-year teacher-training program, designed to prepare for educational leadership as outlined in Part VI.
3. An in-service training program designed to keep alive professionally all secondary-school workers, teachers, and administrators, old and young, experienced and inexperienced. Such a program is outlined in Part VII.
4. A state program of certification based upon the demands for leadership in American secondary schools of today as outlined in Parts VIII and IX.

PART II

THE SIGNIFICANCE AND PRESENT STATUS OF CERTIFICATION

Any adequate consideration and study of training and experience standards for secondary-school principals in the United States should be based upon a complete analysis of existing conditions with respect to certification in our forty-eight states. The data of this chapter,

²*Certification Requirements for Secondary-School Principals in the United States.* Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation. The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. 1947.

dealing with the present status of certification, were adapted from Mr. Burvil H. Glenn's study of 1947.

CERTIFICATION A RECENT EDUCATIONAL VENTURE

Although rules and regulations concerning the certification of secondary-school principals date back to 1915, the majority of the certificates issued to secondary-school principals have become effective since 1937. Beginning in 1937 and extending through 1939, thirty-six kinds of certificates were made effective; and from 1940 through 1944, seventeen states made effective thirty-eight varieties of certificates for secondary-school principals. Since 1944, ten states have made effective a total of twenty types of secondary-school principals' certificates. This unusual activity in recent years is an indication of the growing professionalization of the secondary-school principalship.

CERTIFICATION INVOLVES ALL EDUCATIONAL AREAS

Policies and practices involved in the certification of secondary-school principals are closely correlated with the character and quality of secondary education in the United States. They relate directly to such vital matters as the recruitment of secondary-school principals; professional and financial recognition; pre-service and in-service growth; the administrative, supervisory, and organizational pattern of the secondary school; and, in a very real sense, to the goals and curriculum of secondary education. Indirectly, such policies clearly affect the program of the entire public school system from nursery school to the adult level. Furthermore, certification policies and practices become more important as the influence and responsibility of the secondary-school principal and the high-school staff widen and become interrelated with the civic life of the community in all its varied aspects.

BASIC FUNCTIONS OF CERTIFICATION

Certification policies and practices have three clearly defined functions with respect to the aspects of secondary education outlined above.

1. The minimum standards function
2. The improvement or stimulative function
3. The organizational or patterning function

Minimum Standards Function

The conditions under which the educator may enter and progress to the position and responsibility of the secondary-school principalship are determined to a large extent by the nature of certification requirements. To a certain extent, these minimum standards are a protection to the students, the community, and the state against personal inade-

quacy and professional incompetency. Too great rigidity or overspecificity in requirements may change this function of certification to that of dominance and undesirable restrictiveness.

Stimulative Function

To many persons the stimulative aspect of certification is more significant than the minimum standards function. In terms of the responsibilities of the secondary-school principal for providing vital leadership, it assumes an especially important place. Here too, a narrow definition and recognition of evidence of growth and development may hinder progress rather than facilitate true professional growth.

Organizational Function

The third area of certification relationship, the organizational function, is not always clearly recognized, but, nevertheless, exists and is important. As the various patterns of certification practice throughout the country are studied, it is clearly evident that many influences are at work in varying directions. Certification patterns often set up grade levels or functional areas beyond which the secondary-school principal is not permitted to serve. Commonly the patterns also indicate the nature of the duties and responsibilities which the principal will be expected to assume. The effect of this function of certification may be toward crystallization of existing patterns of organization, or toward change and development.

TYPES OF CERTIFICATES

General Classification Patterns

Forty-seven states have certification programs for their secondary-school principals, Massachusetts being the only state not issuing certificates for all principals. Thirteen states issue the same types of certificates for secondary-school principals as they do for teachers; five states issue teaching certificates but make certain additional requirements to validate these certificates for the secondary-school principalship; eleven states issue general administrative types of certificates; and eighteen states have special certificates for secondary-school principals.

Required Certification Patterns

There are 108 types of certificates issued to secondary-school principals in the United States. Of these, only eighty are required. The majority of the states require only one type of certificate and demand no further professional training other than successful experience. Eleven states have programs of certification for secondary-school principals wherein one or more "limited" or "provisional" type of certificate and

TABLE I. TYPES OF CERTIFICATES ISSUED TO SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS*

<i>Teachers' Certificates Only</i>		<i>Teachers' Certificates with Additional Requirements</i>		<i>General Administrative Certificates</i>		<i>Special Principals' Certificates</i>	
Colorado	(3)	Florida	(3)	Alabama	(2)	Connecticut	(2)
Idaho	(2)	Louisiana	(2)	Arizona	(1)	Delaware	(3)
Maine	(3)	Montana	(2)	Arkansas	(3)	Georgia	(2)
Michigan	(2)	N. Hampshire	(3)	California	(3)	Illinois	(2)
Mississippi	(1)	Rhode Island	(1)	Kansas	(3)	Indiana	(2)
Nevada	(2)			Kentucky	(2)	Iowa	(3)
N. Dakota	(2)			Nebraska	(3)	Maryland	(1)
Oklahoma	(1)			New Mexico	(2)	Minnesota	(3)
S. Carolina	(4)			S. Dakota	(1)	Missouri	(1)
Tennessee	(1)			Utah	(1)	New Jersey	(2)
Texas	(4)			Wyoming	(3)	New York	(6)
Virginia	(2)					N. Carolina	(1)
Wisconsin	(4)					Ohio	(3)
						Oregon	(4)
						Pennsylvania	(2)
						Vermont	(1)
						Washington	(3)
						W. Virginia	(1)
13 states		5 states		11 states		18 states	
31 certificates		11 certificates				42 certificates	

* Figures in parentheses refer to number of different certificates.

a "permanent" type of certificate, having additional requirements, are required. In thirteen states, a "limited" type of certificate is required with additional training prescribed for each renewal of the certificate.

Nonrenewable Certificates

In six states initial certificates for secondary-school principals are nonrenewable and must be replaced by other certificates having additional educational requirements.

Optional Certificates

There are fourteen states offering optional certificates having standards which are in addition to those of the required certificates. All of the optional certificates are of an administrative type and most of them are permanent in character. States having the optional certificates are:

Alabama	Indiana	Oregon
Arkansas	Kansas	Pennsylvania
Florida	Kentucky	Texas
Georgia	New Jersey	Wyoming
Illinois	Ohio	

TABLE II. REQUIRED CERTIFICATION PATTERNS OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

<i>One Certificate with No Further Training</i>		<i>One or More Limited Certificates and a Permanent Certificate with Additional Requirements</i>		<i>One Limited Certificate with Additional Requirements for Renewal</i>	
Alabama	(1)	Colorado	(1) (1)	Arizona	(1)
Arkansas	(1)	Kansas	(1) (1)	Delaware	(3)
California	(3)	Maine	(1) (1)	Florida	(2)
Colorado*	(1)	Michigan	(1) (1)	Georgia	(1)
Connecticut	(2)	Montana	(1) (1)	Maryland	(1)
Idaho	(1)	Nebraska	(2) (1)	Minnesota	(1)
Illinois	(1)	New Hampshire	(1) (1)	Nevada	(1)
Indiana	(1)	New Jersey	(1) (1)	New Mexico	(1)
Iowa	(2)	New York	(3) (3)	Oklahoma	(1)
Kentucky	(1)	South Carolina	(3) (1)	Oregon	(1)
Louisiana	(2)	Wyoming	(1) (1)	Utah	(1)
Minnesota*	(2)			Vermont	(1)
Mississippi	(1)			Virginia	(1)
Missouri	(1)				
North Carolina	(1)				
North Dakota	(1)				
Ohio	(1)				
Pennsylvania	(1)				
Rhode Island	(1)				
South Dakota	(1)				
Tennessee	(1)				
Texas	(3)				
Washington	(3)				
West Virginia	(1)				
Wisconsin	(2)				
25 states		11 states		13 states	
36 certificates		29 certificates		16 certificates	

* State has requirements which fall into more than one category

Certificates of the Highest Level of Professionalization

Thirty states issue forty-four different certificates for secondary-school principals other than initial certificates, many of which are optional. These certificates represent the highest levels of professionalization desired in the certification of secondary-school principals. The educational requirements for these certificates range from a Bachelor's degree to a Master's degree and the number of semester hours of professional work ranges from 16 to 56. States having these certificates are:

Alabama	(1)	Iowa	(1)	Nevada	(2)	Oregon	(3)
Arkansas	(1)	Kansas	(2)	New Hampshire	(2)	Pennsylvania	(1)
Colorado	(2)	Kentucky	(1)	New Jersey	(1)	South Carolina	(3)
Florida	(1)	Louisiana	(1)	New Mexico	(1)	Texas	(1)
Georgia	(1)	Maine	(2)	New York	(3)	Washington	(1)
Idaho	(1)	Michigan	(1)	North Dakota	(1)	Wisconsin	(2)
Illinois	(1)	Montana	(1)	Ohio	(2)	Wyoming	(2)
Indiana	(1)	Nebraska	(1)				

CERTIFICATION REQUIREMENTS

Degree Requirements

The forty-eight states can be divided into four groups according to college degrees required for the certificates issued to secondary-school principals. Two states issue certificates having requirements of less than a Bachelor's degree. Twenty-six states issue certificates requiring the Bachelor's degree or its equivalent. Eighteen states have certificates requiring courses in education in addition to the Bachelor's degree but less than one full year of graduate work. Twenty-five states issue certificates which require the Master's degree or at least one full year of graduate study.

The degree requirements for initial certification of secondary-school principals vary among the states. Colorado and Oklahoma issue initial certificates for secondary-school principals with requirement of less than a Bachelor's degree. Twenty-four states issue initial certificates which require only the Bachelor's degree. Eleven states require courses in addition to the Bachelor's degree but less than one full year of graduate study. Fifteen states have the Master's degree or its equivalent as a requirement.

Academic Courses Required

Twenty-five states make some specification as to academic courses required on the undergraduate level. Typically, considerable variation is given in the choice of academic subjects, with the majority of the states relying upon a college degree in an approved institution, rather than making specific requirements of undergraduate academic subjects.

The requirements of undergraduate and graduate professional courses for initial certification as a secondary-school principal range from none to sixty semester hours. The average for the forty-eight states is 25.9 semester hours. The average number of semester hours of undergraduate professional education required is 18.2; the average number of semester hours of graduate professional courses required is 7.7.

There is great diversity among the states in the professional subjects required for initial certification. Nineteen states require some preparation in broad areas or fields such as secondary education, secondary-school administration and supervision, and school organization and administration. Forty-one states require one or more specific subjects such as educational psychology, principles of high-school teaching, guidance, high-school administration, high-school supervision, and high-school curriculum. Twenty states require selection from lists of elective subjects. The majority of the states prescribe one or more professional subjects and permit election of others to meet the profes-

TABLE III. DEGREE REQUIREMENTS FOR INITIAL CERTIFICATES

<i>Less Than Bachelor's Degree</i>		<i>Bachelor's Degree or Equivalent</i>		<i>More Than Bachelor's but Less than Master's Degree</i>		<i>Master's Degree or Equivalent</i>	
Colorado	(1)	Alabama	(1)	Arizona	(1)	California	(3)
Oklahoma	(1)	Arkansas	(1)	Connecticut	(2)	Delaware	(2)
		Colorado	(1)	Florida	(1)	Indiana	(1)
		Delaware	(1)	Georgia	(1)	Iowa	(1)
		Florida	(1)	Iowa	(1)	Kansas	(1)
		Idaho	(1)	Minnesota	(1)	Louisiana	(1)
		Illinois	(1)	New Jersey	(1)	Maryland	(1)
		Kentucky	(1)	New York	(3)	Missouri	(1)
		Maine	(1)	N. Carolina	(1)	New Mexico	(1)
		Michigan	(1)	Ohio	(1)	Oregon	(1)
		Minnesota	(2)	South Dakota	(1)	S. Carolina	(1)
		Mississippi	(1)			Utah	(1)
		Montana	(1)			Vermont	(1)
		Nebraska	(1)			Washington	(2)
		Nevada	(1)			West Virginia	(1)
		N. Hampshire	(1)				
		North Dakota	(1)				
		Pennsylvania	(1)				
		Rhode Island	(1)				
		Tennessee	(1)				
		Texas	(3)				
		Virginia	(2)				
		Wisconsin	(2)				
		Wyoming	(1)				
2 states		24 states		11 states		15 states	
2 certificates		29 certificates		14 certificates		19 certificates	

sional requirements. Table IV shows the number of states requiring certain subjects.

In a majority of the states, additional education courses for renewal of certificates for secondary-school principals are not required or are made optional with successful experience, travel, or other types of professional growth.

Experience Requirements

Experience requirements for the certification of secondary-school principals vary among the states and often within the states themselves. There are twenty-three types of certificates which require no experience and thirty-eight others which require a background of teaching. For thirty-six kinds of certificates, teaching or administrative experience is optional, or only successful experience is prescribed. Eleven certificates are issued which specify administrative experience as a background for the secondary-school principalship.

TABLE IV. REQUIRED PROFESSIONAL SUBJECTS FOR INITIAL CERTIFICATION

<i>Subject</i>	<i>No. of States</i>	<i>Subject</i>	<i>No. of States</i>
General Psychology	2	Elementary-School Administration	3
Educational Psychology	23	Secondary-School Supervision	6
Educational Sociology	1	Elementary-School Supervision	1
Principles of High-School Teaching	13	Supervision of Instruction	2
Philosophy of Education	2	Elementary Methods	1
Adolescent Psychology	2	Pupil Personnel	1
Guidance	2	State Problems of Education	1
Introduction to Education	1	Curriculum	5
American Public Education	3	Educational Measurements	3
General Methods	5	Educational Statistics	1
History of Education	3	School Hygiene	2
School Law	5	Practice Teaching	39
High-School Methods	9	Health Education	2
Special Methods	7	Physical Education	2
General School Administration	7	First Aid	1
Secondary-School Administration	6	Physiology and Hygiene	1

In twenty-one of the states, no definite experience requirements are specified for the renewal of certificates for secondary-school principals. Seventeen states require successful experience but have variations in the number of years of experience required. Five states issue certificates which specify teaching experience as a condition of renewal; and administrative experience is required for the renewal of one type of certificate for secondary-school principals issued by each of five states.

General Requirements

Character—There is considerable variation among the forty-eight states in the general requirements for all teachers and administrators. Character requirements are most common. Thirty-six states either specify or imply requirements of this sort. References, recommendations, and testimonials from qualified persons or from the institution preparing the teacher are common means for meeting this requirement.

Health—In thirty-four states, there are requirements concerning the health of applicants for certification. Medical certificates, approved physical examinations, and courses in college related to physical education and health are used by the states for fulfillment of this condition. More than one half of the states specifying health as a requirement for certification require either a doctor's certification or examination as proof of physical fitness for teaching.

Minimum Age—Thirty-three of the states have minimum-age requirements for the certification of all teachers and administrators. The re-

TABLE V. EXPERIENCE REQUIREMENTS FOR SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' CERTIFICATES

No Experience	Teaching Experience	Teaching or Administrative Experience	Administrative Experience
Arkansas	(1) Arizona	(1) Alabama	(2) Kansas (1)
Colorado	(2) California	(2) Arkansas	(2) Nebraska (2)
Idaho	(1) Connecticut	(2) California	(1) New Jersey (1)
Illinois	(1) Florida	(1) Colorado	(1) New Mexico (1)
Kansas	(1) Georgia	(1) Delaware	(3) Ohio (2)
Maine	(1) Idaho	(1) Florida	(2) Oregon (1)
Michigan	(1) Illinois	(1) Georgia	(1) Washington (1)
Missouri	(1) Iowa	(2) Indiana	(2) Wyoming (2)
Nebraska	(1) Kentucky	(2) Iowa	(1)
Nevada	(1) Louisiana	(2) Kansas	(1)
New Hampshire	(1) Maryland	(1) Maine	(2)
Oklahoma	(1) Michigan	(1) Minnesota	(3)
Oregon	(1) Mississippi	(1) New Hampshire	(2)
Pennsylvania	(1) Montana	(2) New York	(6)
Rhode Island	(1) Nevada	(1) North Dakota	(2)
South Carolina	(1) New Jersey	(1) Oregon	(2)
Tennessee	(1) New Mexico	(1) South Carolina	(3)
Texas	(3) N. Carolina	(1)	
Wisconsin	(2) Ohio	(1)	
	Pennsylvania	(1)	
	S. Dakota	(1)	
	Texas	(1)	
	Utah	(1)	
	Vermont	(1)	
	Virginia	(2)	
	Washington	(2)	
	West Virginia	(1)	
	Wisconsin	(2)	
	Wyoming	(1)	
19 states	29 states	17 states	8 states
23 certificates	38 certificates	36 certificates	11 certificates

quirements of minimum age in these states range from seventeen to twenty years. The average minimum age required is eighteen years.

Citizenship—Twenty-seven states make requirements related to citizenship of the United States as a part of the conditions for certification of teachers and administrators. Oaths of allegiance to the United States, the state, the Constitution of the United States, or the state constitution are means used by six states in the fulfillment of this requirement. Examinations on United States history, civics, and the Constitution; sworn statements of citizenship; and presentation of birth certificates and tax receipts are other means used by the states to satisfy this requirement.

PART III

PURPOSES OF AMERICAN SECONDARY EDUCATION

RESPONSIBILITY OF THE PRINCIPAL

Extent of Responsibility

Each of us has a particular part to play in secondary education. The principal of the American secondary school has in some measure all the responsibilities of the secondary classroom teacher, the custodian, the cafeteria worker, the clerical staff, the nurse, and all other school employees. In addition, the principal has three kinds of responsibilities which are over and beyond those of other school workers.

Leadership in Development of the Philosophy of the School

First, the principal has the responsibility for leading the entire staff of the secondary school in developing as guiding principles the objectives of the school. If properly developed and brought down to the action level, these objectives will constitute the program of the secondary school. They will serve as measuring sticks by which practices and policies can be evaluated continuously. They will serve as the framework from which the activities of the secondary school will develop. They will furnish, if they cut across the lives of American youth, an impact upon the community as well as upon the school. In other words, these objectives, if they are worth determining, must be alive, must be not only abreast but also on the cutting edge of social change and must be so evolved as to affect lives of youth.

Co-ordination of Activities

Second, the principal has the responsibility for co-ordinating all those activities which grow out of a dynamic program of secondary education. The art of co-ordinating in a democratic society requires the highest type of leadership ability. It cannot be done from an armchair, nor can it be left to do itself. The co-ordinating responsibility requires a precise sense of balance and timing. It requires a grasp of the whole and an insight into each particular part. It requires utmost tact and vision in dealing with the multiple personalities which are involved in any one situation. It requires discrimination, patience, courage, and ability to acknowledge a mistake.

Decision Making

Third, the principal has the responsibility for making decisions. If the principal has discharged his responsibility for leading and

co-ordinating in a thoroughly statesmanlike manner, his responsibility for decisions is likely to be aptly and favorably discharged.

NEEDS FOR MEETING RESPONSIBILITIES

Conviction About the Type of Program

How can a principal successfully meet his peculiar responsibility for the program of the American secondary school? It seems clear that he must first have deep-seated convictions concerning the kind of program which is urgent in America today and in the America of tomorrow. He must understand that America is in a critical period of her history. He must recognize that there probably has never been another time in history when the decisions of a single people will have so much to do with the lives of people around the world, as is true of the decisions that the American people are in the process of making here and now. He must recognize that freedom and democracy, as we know them, exist only on this continent at the present time. He must understand and lead others to understand that if America and her people prove to be rooted deeply enough in the basic American ideals of free speech, freedom of religion, and free press; if America and her people prove to believe deeply enough in the force and possibility of American education as a way to underwrite their future and the future of other liberty-loving peoples; then, we may be on the threshold of the most magnificent life that this nation and the world have ever seen. If, on the other hand, America and her people prove to be weak-kneed in their responsibility for the welfare of others, if they fail to support their institutions, if they fail to come to understand the relationship between an adequate program of public education and their future welfare as a free people, then we may very well find that we are past the peak of American civilization. The principal of the American secondary school must believe that there is no other vehicle on which such ideals of freedom and democracy can move forward except the vehicle of adequate public education which leads to enlightened and informed participation in the responsibility of citizenship in a free nation.

Understanding of Education's Major Responsibilities

He must understand the responsibilities which American secondary education must assume if America is to carry her share of the load in making freedom and democracy so vital that it not only serves us here, but also spreads throughout the world. America cannot settle for a program of education that is held only in the minds and hearts of its teachers. America can settle only for a program of education that is understood and held dear in the minds and hearts of all of us. There-

fore, it is the responsibility of the secondary-school principal to bring to the American people the techniques to make that understanding come to life.

The American secondary-school principal must understand that education has first a responsibility for promoting the general welfare of all the people. It has, second, the responsibility for contributing to the growth and development of an individual citizen who can stand up and carry his share of the load in our democratic society. This side of the responsibility of American education will be discussed from only one aspect and that is the responsibility of the American secondary school for terminal education.

Education's Responsibility for the General Welfare

World Peace and Understanding—In this atomic age, there is no such thing as individual security, group security, or national security, other than within the framework of a world at peace. It is not going to do much good to build a lot of new school buildings, lovely homes, or develop fine businesses when a few well-placed atomic bombs could destroy them all. The question arises: How can we avoid this disaster? Can the world leaders secure for us a generation of peace? The best that we can hope for is that they will guide us through periods of tension. It will be up to the great masses to build and to keep the peace. Peace will have to become secure through the use, by the people themselves, of the great constructive forces that are at their disposal. Education is unquestionably the most powerful tool, the most constructive single agency at the disposal of mankind with which to secure a world at peace.

If the American secondary school is to help secure a world of peace, it will be necessary to teach our youth modern concepts of time and space. We must help our youth realize they are neighbors with youth all over the world and have a share in the responsibility for their destiny. Unless the American secondary school teaches youth the realities of time and space through the radio, television, and the airplane, they will be unable to cope with the kind of world they find on their doorstep.

If the secondary school is to help its young people become neighbors with youth all over the world, it must help them understand how others live, what they like to eat, what their schools are like, what they do for fun, and what are the major problems which youth are facing in other countries.

It should be clear now after a thousand years of experience that a world of peace cannot be realized by organizing a group of nations on one side and neatly balancing them with a group of nations on the other. The world is tempted now for the second time in a generation to try something else—co-operative strength. We call the current trial the

United Nations. The United Nations is, thus far, mainly a declaration of faith on the part of some fifty-odd nations. Every American youth deserves knowledge and understanding concerning the United Nations so that he, as a youthful citizen of the world, may carry his share of the load of the world at peace. The American secondary school should help youth understand that, if the United Nations is to succeed, it must have strength enough to cope with the tensions and problems which are bound to arise. The youth of America need to understand that one of the major problems of modern times is to find a way and a willingness to transfer into a common pool enough of the prerogatives of each of the nations of the world so that the United Nations will be strong enough to maintain peace.

Maintenance and Extension of Democracy—The second responsibility of American education for the general welfare is the maintenance and extension of democracy in American life. The need of an enlightened citizenry and the importance of public education were recognized by the founders of our country. They set up a very noble experiment. The American secondary school must make it possible for every youth to have the experiences of democratic living. It is, even in a deeper sense than in the early stages of this nation, the responsibility of American education to make freedom and democracy secure throughout the years. There is no better way to make democracy secure than by living it.

Fundamentally, it is the duty of every American teacher in a free society to respect every child who comes to school. Not one document on the Freedom Train contained as much as a hint that citizenship is conditioned by how well or how soon one can learn to read or do his gymnastics in arithmetic, or any of the other major items that make up the fabric of day-to-day school activities. On the contrary, *membership in a free society is equal on the basis of membership alone*. American teachers must recognize that every youth is a citizen of this country and, therefore, entitled to its privileges. It is the responsibility of the school to seek out the greatest potentialities of every American and to help develop an educational program that will nurture each of these youth to the point that he is able, within the limits of his capacity, to carry his share of the load in our American society. Nothing short of this is enough. It is only to the degree that American teachers come to understand, believe, and act upon these principles that we will be able to underwrite democracy through education.

The American secondary school must become the laboratory in which each youth learns through direct experience the techniques of democratic action, forms the attitudes of a democratic citizen, and

develops the appetite to continue practicing democracy as an adult. Every youth should have continuous, day-by-day experiences in democratic action within his own classroom, within the school as a whole, and within the school-community program. This action program should be coupled with a thorough study of our heritage of democratic concepts and an intelligent insight into other current governmental patterns.

Conservation of Natural Resources—The third responsibility of American education is in connection with the conservation of natural resources. The standard of living of a people comes from only one source, the combination of the labor of the people's hands as applied to raw materials. This country has been richly blessed with an abundance of raw materials. Two hundred years ago when the white man was just beginning to push in off the Atlantic seaboard, America had illimitable natural resources. The Atlantic coastal plain of America was fertile enough to support an adequate standard of living and have some left over to send to the old country to start our trade. The Appalachian plateau, extending from Canada to the Gulf, had a magnificent stand of hard and soft wood. As the white man pushed over the hills of Pennsylvania, he found the coal and oil to start the machines of this country. He spilled on over the plateau into the great bread-basket of America—the valleys of the Ohio, the Mississippi, the Missouri, and their tributaries. There he found the most unusual combination of top soil and moisture and favorable climate of any place in the world. Then he went on to the plains or short-grass section of our nation supporting its millions of buffalo, elk, and deer. He began to thread his way through the Rockies to the Pacific. He found the magnificent stands of forests, the little valleys that would grow almost anything when irrigated. Across the northern tier of states—Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota—he found the incredible Norway and white-pine forests, the finest of their kind in the world. In the South, he found fertile fields and moisture to grow bountiful crops.

Today, however, the picture has changed considerably. Much of the Atlantic coastal plain is denuded and its fertility gone. The Appalachian plateau has had thousands of its acres stripped of its trees. Only a few islands of timber remain. Instead of being able to go into those hills for timber and wild life, we now cringe and flee before the floods that come down their barren sides. The once fertile, tall-grass section of the Middle West is rapidly losing its fertility. Farm after farm—millions of acres—have grown their last good crop during the lifetime of this generation. The great plains area is now almost completely plowed. The wheat that is feeding the world has been taken from this

area and the dust storms have reappeared. Only the remnants of some of the great forests of Oregon, Washington, and California remain.

Take the state of Minnesota for example. At least one third of the top soil of Minnesota is gone. When another third is gone, there will be little chance of continuing the high standard of living. Only a small part of the great Norway- and white-pine forests remains. Only enough high-grade ore remains in the Mesaba range to last another thirty to sixty years, and the water table in Minnesota has been going down steadily. This is a tragic story when one realizes that it is possible to farm a good acre of soil for a thousand years and still have a good acre left, or harvest mature timber generation after generation and still have a productive forest.

Why have the American people tended to waste their top soil, slaughter their trees, and be so reckless with their minerals? Mainly because Americans have not been taught the basic laws of conservation. Americans must learn and American secondary schools must accept the responsibility for teaching them that we must replace that which has been removed from the soil; that technology and machines must be used as assiduously to conserve and restore our natural resources as to exploit them. All of us, especially the youth of America, must understand that, unless we learn to save enough of our basic wealth to maintain an adequate standard of living, America will be a poverty-ridden nation in the not-too-distant future.

Education's Responsibility for Individual Growth and Development

Comprehensive High Schools—The second major side of the responsibility of American education is its contribution to the growth and development of the individual. Space will permit a discussion of this side of education's responsibility only as it relates to terminal education. The youth of America—all of them—are entitled to a high-school education to help them live well-adjusted, useful lives as adult citizens in a free democratic society. This education should include both general and vocational education for all. It should help prepare each youth for the next important steps in life, whether those steps are toward employment, toward home-making, toward college, or toward general citizenship. Thus, the need for comprehensive high schools becomes clear. In a democratic society, all people should be educated for useful service, and work should be looked upon as socially desirable. In order that youth have a chance to taste the desirability of work, public schools, in co-operation with homes and community agencies, should devise a variety of approaches whereby all youth have some work experience as a part of their educational opportunities. This work should

be looked upon not only as intrinsically valuable but also as a means to give youth a broader base of understanding and a keener insight into the world of work.

Planning a program of vocational education for all youth presents many problems because of the wide range of vocational outlets into which youth go. Large numbers of youth go temporarily into jobs which require little specialized skill. Others go into jobs which require highly technical skills, while still others go on to advanced training in colleges and universities. Some are forced to combine work and education in order to stay in school. All of these youth are entitled to the kind of high-school education which recognizes their future vocational plans by preparing them for their next steps.

All this emphasizes the need of developing comprehensive high schools, with the understanding that the pattern will vary from one community to another. It means that the relationship between general and vocational education must be recognized to the extent that all high schools have clearly defined programs, so enriched for everyone that youth will be better prepared than they are at present. It means that high schools must utilize such resources as outdoor education, conservation programs, and projects carried on in home and family living. Ways must be found for youth to spend some of their time in employment while they are going to school. It means that we must enliven education through the use of firsthand experiences and varied teaching techniques. It means that we must accept all youth regardless of their economic status or intellectual capacity. Such acceptance would necessitate revamping many of our present high-school offerings. It means that an individual student's program must receive enough personal attention that it is tailor-made to suit his needs and interests.

In the development of the comprehensive high school, more attention needs to be given to a program for those students who are going into unskilled and semiskilled jobs. As this program is thought through, enough emphasis will need to be given to developing general dexterity with the hands; to training for the acceptance of citizenship responsibility on community, state, national and world levels; to training for family living; to understanding the role of labor and management in relation to the job under consideration; and to understanding governmental regulations.

As the program of the comprehensive high school is developed, continuous evaluation is necessary in all phases of its program. Trends seem to indicate a need for providing the major part of vocational education requiring specialized skills as late as possible in the student's school experience. In the existing school, it would come no earlier

than the eleventh or twelfth grade. It also seems clear that there is emerging a pattern of education that will extend through the thirteenth and fourteenth years for those students who need additional training. Such a school will be especially useful to society in developing vocationally effective citizenship.

Vocational Schools on the Adult Level—The function of the vocational school on the adult level needs to be reconsidered in order to meet the needs of those who require upgrading or re-training. The adult education program which we envision will take the form of a people's school and will assure adequate opportunities for continuous education to all adults regardless of age, race, sex, religion, economic position, or previous education. This school will include out-of-school youth, nongraduates as well as graduates, and will furnish opportunities to all adults for enriched living and working. This school will be considered a part of the secondary school to give thirteenth- and fourteenth-year training to those youth in the community who desire further training. For the most part, the secondary school would serve youth during the fourteenth year during the day while the late afternoon and evening hours would be used more extensively for adults. The people's school would serve as a transition from school life into adult living.

Vocational Guidance—An integrated part of the program of vocational education should be a program of vocational guidance. This guidance cannot be separated from the program in the high school. A way must be found to offer vocational guidance to each individual on the basis of his ability rather than on the basis of his economic status. This guidance must be highly individualized, and, in addition to the counseling, testing, and advising phases, it should include placement and follow-up.

It is within such a framework as this chapter has presented that the problem of certification of secondary-school principals must be considered.

PART IV

PERSONAL QUALIFICATIONS OF THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

The personal qualifications of the secondary-school principal may be grouped under the following headings: compelling philosophy of education, demonstrated capacity for leadership, understanding of democratic principles and processes of secondary education, and personal traits of the effective principal.

Conscious of the danger of setting qualifications so high that few could meet them, the committee feels that these are the goals that ultimately must be reached to insure the type of leadership so greatly needed in our secondary schools. Regardless of the academic and professional training one may have, if certain personal qualifications are lacking, the chances for successful school leadership are definitely limited. The changing function of secondary education in the present world situation as discussed in Chapter II intensifies the need for such leadership.

COMPELLING PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION

There are probably few secondary-school principals who through college courses or other means have not had impressed upon them the importance of a philosophy of education. Just how vital and dynamic an influence this study of philosophy has had in the quality of leadership of our schools is debatable. It is not the purpose of this report to set forth a specific philosophy of education to which the principal must subscribe. However, certain guiding principles concerning a philosophy seem to be in order.

An Action Philosophy

There can be little question that this philosophy, in terms of the individual, should be clearly understood and compelling to action. Otherwise, this philosophy would become merely an academic study of interest only to students of education.

Clear Conception of the Role of the Secondary School

Perhaps at no time in our educational history has it been so imperative that our leaders of secondary education have a clearly defined conception of the strategic functions of our secondary schools. The rapidly evolving role of world leadership which our country has been forced to assume will necessarily affect the philosophy of our school leaders. Our expanding national responsibility will be reflected in a changed conception of the role which our secondary schools must play in our social order. The principal whose philosophy of education does not recognize this responsibility will be unable to provide the leadership sorely needed now and in the years ahead.

A Philosophy Based upon Democratic Principles

Our democratic institutions are facing a struggle for existence unparalleled in our history. Our secondary schools should and must assume an important role in this struggle. If this role is to be effective it will require leadership which is based upon sound, democratic principles—upon a philosophy dynamic and compelling in nature.

DEMONSTRATED CAPACITY FOR LEADERSHIP

The principal has a number of important and difficult functions to perform. He is the liaison officer between the school and the parents. He is the interpreter to the public of the aims and the achievement of the school. To the faculty he is not merely an administrative superior; he is both counselor and friend. To the students he is a quickening, vitalizing influence, a perennial source of encouragement, as well as judge and court of appeal. Moreover, he represents the school to the alumni and endeavors to make them realize their part in fostering the ideals of the school and in maintaining, as an active force for good, that larger community which is made up of past and present pupils.

Friendly and Co-operative Relations with Parents

The principal should aim to establish the most friendly and co-operative relations with parents. If the efforts of the school to educate are to be effective, they need the genuine assistance of the home—that steady pressure in the same direction which only parents can successfully exert. The principal may either hinder or promote co-operative relations with parents by such means as printed communications, pamphlets of information, reports of progress, letters of approbation or of advice, public entertainments, parents' meetings, associations of parents and teachers, as well as by individual conferences. By such means, the principal is enabled to get in touch with the family, to make parents understand what the school is trying to do, and to intensify in the parents, and in some cases perhaps to rekindle, a sense of responsibility for the comfort and the accomplishments of their children.

General Public Relations

The general public has a most valuable investment in the public schools. Without question, education is the most vital enterprise undertaken by the state. If that is true then surely in a democracy each citizen should be made to feel, with the force of personal conviction, the supreme value of well-conducted schools to the individual and to the state. The citizen has a right also to know what is going on in the schools; he needs to be instructed as to the essential purposes of democratic education. Therefore, it is the principal's responsibility to obtain the right kind of publicity, not only for his own school but for the general cause of education as well. The overemphasis of athletic news in the daily press is not a matter that can be looked upon with unconcern. Such overstressing produces a wholly distorted impression of educational aims in the minds of the public; the resultant confusion of values reacts on the attitude of the students, and the task of the teacher is almost hopelessly complicated. The newspapers will print

news. It is for the principal to see that they get the kind of news that will give the public a true understanding of the aims and objectives of the school.

Co-ordinating the Efforts of the Faculty

The principal has the diplomatic task of co-ordinating the efforts of his teachers without diminishing their enthusiasm or destroying their initiative. He must stand squarely behind them in cases of discipline; at the same time he must be just to the student. He must discover special abilities in the teaching staff, and for these special aptitudes he must provide means of expression that will furnish satisfaction to the teacher and educative value to the student body. He must not overwork his teachers or forget that they have other legitimate interests outside of school. He ought to make each teacher feel that he is a personal friend, an understanding adviser, a wise guide in critical situations. In the administration of the curriculum and in the assignment of tasks, he must play no favorites. It is not too much to say that on the relations between the principal and his faculty depends, to a very large degree, the morale of the school.

Relations with Students

In a large school, obviously, the principal cannot come into close personal contact with many of the students. He cannot even know all of them by name. Nevertheless, in the course of the year many direct contacts are established between the head of the school and the students. It should be the concern of the principal that these contacts make the proper impression upon the students, that students come to regard their principal as a just, sympathetic, dignified, and understanding friend whose single aim is to assist them in attaining to the fullest height of their mental, physical, and moral capabilities.

UNDERSTANDING DEMOCRATIC PRINCIPLES AND PROCESSES

Dynamic Nature of School and Society

At the secondary-school level, as in all of life, constant change is taking place. Today, democratic procedures are on the march, and programs of endeavor are being based upon an increased attention to psychology and the findings of research. Certainly, among the personal qualifications for effective principalship is alertness to the activities, to the thinking, to the analyses, and to the developmental aspects of other people and their programs of endeavor. It is doubtful whether a person is qualified to exercise active leadership as a principal in a high school until he is fully aware of the multitudinous changes constantly taking place in the field of education, and is also cognizant,

through scientific research, of the evaluation of these changes. The age has passed, in the field of administration, when there is a single procedure by which any task may be accomplished.

Growth Processes

The principal's qualifications will not be complete unless he himself is fully aware of the growth processes involved in educational development, not only of his own co-workers on the faculty, but also of the pupils. The principal must be a practicing psychologist. His psychological knowledge of the adjustment problems of adolescents should enable him to identify those factors in adolescent growth that make for success as well as those that make for failure. He should be a man who can work with both faculty and parents in analyzing the various psychological bases of maladjustments of high-school students. And, what is more important, he should be able to offer general solutions for rectifying the maladjustments. Altogether too many young people at the secondary-school level are having difficulty because they have not made the proper mental adjustments to their own youth world. Certainly one of the most important functions of secondary education should be to enable youth to make adequate adjustments to the many problems of society, as well as adequate adjustment to their own liabilities and their own assets. A high school will not be a successful institution in helping students make these adjustments unless the head of that institution is thoroughly competent in the field of educational psychology, particularly as that psychology applies to the problems of adolescent adjustment.

Democratic Administration

Closely affiliated with the understanding of the growth processes of youth must go an understanding of democratic administration. It is rather widely admitted that one of the failures of the secondary-school administrator of a generation or two ago was the dogmatic manner in which most problems were solved—the autocracy, as it were, of the high-school principals' group. This dictatorship type of administration revealed a lack of knowledge of, and belief in, the intelligent research into the psychological growth processes of both the faculty and the student body. During recent years, we have come to a much better understanding and appreciation of the values of democratic processes. Principals are discovering that, through democratic processes, we may have many methods of attack upon administrative problems with a number of solutions, rather than a limited single answer to the questions and difficulties that arise. Democratic procedure is not an easy matter to administer, particularly when this very democracy, if misguided, might

result in a serious predicament for the administrator who still carries the responsibility. There may justly arise a fear that democracy might not produce the best solution to the curricular, activity, or administrative problems; and this fear too often hinders the high-school principal in solving the knotty problem himself. An individualistic attitude in administrative problems results in conflict between the faculty and the administration. Such an attitude eliminates many highly valuable contributions of an alert and industrious faculty. Certainly the *esprit de corps* of the faculty is greatly enhanced if the faculty feels—in fact, knows—that it has a real part in the administration of the school. To gain such an understanding in the democratic processes of administration, a high-school principal must not only study democratic administration, but also practice it.

Lack of Experience in Democratic Education

Few beginning high-school principals have experienced truly democratic education either in the teacher training institutions or in the high schools in which they have received their training. Too often, the beginner comes into high-school administration with the belief that he has most of the answers to the problems, with the attitude of dictatorship in administration, and with too much of a feeling that boys and girls are mere cogs in a huge machine. Such an individual must come to realize that, through reliance on the intelligent findings of other individuals who also have studied the problems, through a careful inspection of the difficulties presented by faculty or student members of the school, and, particularly, through a working knowledge of the psychological bases for adolescent maladjustments, he can be of more acceptable service in his chosen profession.

These democratic principles and processes are prerequisite for effective principalship. They practically defy evaluation, yet their possession by an administrator is easily discernible. Study will help attain these qualifications, but a personal consciousness of their value, together with a conscientious drive for their attainment, will yield larger returns in effective high-school administration.

SOME PERSONAL TRAITS OF THE EFFECTIVE PRINCIPAL

The success of a leader in education, as well as in business or industry, is often determined by certain traits of personality that are more important than has been recognized generally. A high-school principal may have excellent academic and professional training and still be an ineffective school leader through an unfortunate lack of certain personal qualities so necessary to success. It is not probable that all of these traits can be made a part of every individual's person-

ality. Certainly within the scope of this chapter all traits of personality tending to contribute to the effectiveness of a secondary-school leader cannot be listed or analyzed in any detail. There are, however, certain traits that are so universally associated with the successful principal that they should receive at least some special recognition.

Character

The secondary-school principal should be a person of high moral character, a person who can truly inspire and lead his fellow workers, as well as gain the co-operation of the students and citizens in the community.

Citizenship

The secondary-school principal should be more than a citizen in name only. He should fulfill the spirit of citizenship and be active rather than passive. He should be a person who truly exemplifies and acts upon the principles and practices consonant with our American way of life.

Maturity

The secondary-school principal should be a person of sufficient maturity and judgment that his leadership will be properly respected, sought, and followed. His leadership should be creative in character so as to stimulate others to growth.

Ability to Work in Harmony with Others

Possibly there is no characteristic of an effective leader more important than the ability to work in harmony with others. This is especially true of the high-school principal who by necessity must deal with the public, his staff, his superiors, and the high-school pupils. This has been dealt with before in this report, but the importance of this characteristic deserves special emphasis. An understanding of human relationships and a friendly and approachable disposition are contributing factors toward this ability. Fortunately, these traits may be acquired or at least improved by a recognition of their importance and a conscious effort to attain them. The democratic conception of our schools requires democratic leadership. An ability to work co-operatively with others is a requisite of such leadership.

Physical and Mental Health

Another trait vital to an effective leader is a capacity for, and pleasure in, his work. This involves both physical and mental health. Physical health usually can be determined by a competent physician. Mental health, even more essential to success, is not so easily recognized. There are, however, certain evidences of emotional stability so

generally evident in one who possesses them that it may be possible to measure these qualities more objectively than has been usually assumed. Further study in the field of the mental and emotional attributes necessary for effective school leadership is clearly indicated by the all-important function they play in school leadership.

Courage and Independence

No principal, though having all the desirable personal traits previously mentioned, can make a real contribution to secondary education unless he also possesses a strong measure of courage and independence. Notable progress in education is generally dependent upon leaders who have courage in their convictions and the fortitude to uphold and propagate them. One of the chief weaknesses in our present educational program is the tendency to follow supinely the pattern set out as adequate for the past generation. Recognition of the changing functions and responsibilities of our secondary schools is futile without leaders of fortitude. This is not a call for martyrs to our cause. Although some danger to security may be involved, this is a small price to pay for the constructive advances our schools are capable of making under leaders of vision and courage. Progress in any field is achieved largely through the efforts of courageous and enlightened leadership. If our secondary schools are to meet the constantly expanding needs of youth, this type of leadership is imperative.

PART V

THE GENERAL EDUCATION OF THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

DEFINITIONS OF GENERAL EDUCATION

Orientation to Universal Human Needs

The orientation of the individual within the areas of universal human need is the most widely accepted concept of general education. These universal needs of man are the common heritage of all the race. They are but slightly conditioned, if at all, by race, national ancestry, vocational calling, social or economic status, or geographical location. These areas of universal human need are felt by all men everywhere for no other reason than that they are fellow members of the human family. In the satisfaction of the common yearning for maximum personal growth and development, these needs are as essential to the street sweeper as to the bank president. This orientation of the individual within the respective areas of universal human need is accepted in this report as a practical, working definition of general education.

Handling of Common Problems

Clarence H. Faust and Reuben Frodin, writing in the *School Review* of January, 1948, make the following statement:

The members of a democratic community face two kinds of problems: those confronting individuals in the carrying out of the tasks which they assume in their special places in society as doctors, lawyers, businessmen, engineers, and so on; and those confronting all men, not as specialists, but as men and as citizens—the common ethical problems of men and those questions concerning city, state, and national affairs which are decided in a democracy by majority opinion or judgment. It is for the handling of these common problems that general education seeks to prepare students.³

Communication with Understanding

MacLean describes general education as a synthesizing process in which we endeavor "to distill out of the mass of our courses and activities the essences."⁴ He points out that our failure to accomplish this has given rise to an abundance of specialists but too few who know how to generalize. He quotes the late President Lotus D. Coffman as saying: "One man can scarcely talk with another any more with common understanding, and the more we educate them, it seems, the more difficult it becomes for them to catch each other's meanings."

Unified Direction in Living

The major objective of general education, as stated above, is further emphasized by Ordway Tead, who says:

We deliberately seek to encourage a *general* view of the person and of his inclusive abilities and capacities to participate in our common life on all its fronts. And by that measure we now realize that we want for all a general education to equip all to play the diversity of roles which modern life requires, with the added beneficence of a sense of unified direction in living. We require of the citizens of a free society that they be liberated from preconceptions, prejudices, and limited personal preoccupations.⁵

Knowledge Alone Not Enough—Emotionalized Attitudes

In any acceptable concept of general education, it should be pointed out that knowledge alone will not constitute a satisfactory orientation within the areas of universal human need. Along with knowledge must go the development of what Professor Briggs has termed "emotionalized attitudes." A person might be thoroughly versed in all the learning and lore of the social sciences but, if he were antisocial in his attitudes, he would be even more dangerously so, merely because of his possession of such knowledge. Proper attitudes

³ Clarence H. Faust and Reuben Frodin, *The School Review*, January, 1948, p. 14.

⁴ Malcolm S. MacLean, "General Education in Public Schools," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, February, 1947, p. 82.

⁵ Ordway Tead, "The Role of General Education in the Junior College," *The Junior College Journal*, March, 1947, p. 268.

must be developed in order to assure acceptable behavior patterns which are essential to any satisfactory orientation in the areas of human need.

SUGGESTED PROGRAMS OF GENERAL EDUCATION

MacLean's Four Basic Opportunities

An analysis of the universal needs of man has led to certain suggested programs of general education of which a few typical ones will be presented in this connection. Dr. Malcolm S. MacLean summarizes:

What we want to create, if we can and as fast as we can, is a balanced curricular offering and a variety of methods that will give each and every child and youth under our care the fullest possible opportunity to:

1. *Maintain and improve his physical and emotional health as a person* by bringing his dreams and ambitions within the range of his achievement; by helping him to learn the best and most healthful ways of self-understanding and self-control; by developing his powers of recreation. The latter is of utmost importance. It means that our extracurricular activities and our "special subjects"—our art, music, machine shops, home economics—must both be taken into respectable membership on full equality with English and physics and civics because these learnings are important for everybody, for some as special and for others as general education. Thus, physical education, which becomes a specialty for the athlete and the teacher of that subject, is a general basis for bodily and mental health for all the rest. The machine shop, rightly used, can turn out both potential mechanics and fruitful hobbyists who get pleasure, satisfaction, and growth from the use of tools. Some studies show that none needs this kind of tool-and-material hobby so much as the quiet, bookish youngster whose chief urge is to devote himself to academic subjects. Thus, also, music teachers have responsibility for both professional and general education—on the one hand to identify potentially fine musicians and start them on the long road of their training and on the other to heighten and intensify the appreciation and love of music for all the others.

2. *Develop in youngsters an everwidening concept of the seamless web of the work of the world and the dignity and worth of all kinds of jobs* as well as the fundamentals of selecting, training for, getting and growing on the job that is right for them, and again to bring them out of their dreams and fantasies of being big-shots, like the boy who said that the thing he most wanted to be was a retired businessman, into achievable realities.

3. *Grow in insight as to why and how the present families with whom they live are the basic units of our society* and the basic foundation of their own present and future security and happiness, and how to get along better with their families and get ready to found good ones of their own.

4. *Train themselves in democratic group activities and get the habit of community service on an everexpanding scale.* It is clear to you and me, I think, that without this final main phase of general education developed as effectively as we can, our students, when they grow up, can be fine persons, have lovely families, and be employed at good jobs, and all three—personality, families, and jobs—can come crumbling down in dust and rubble about their ears if their local, state, national, and world community is not healthy and

prospering. The depression of the thirties and the two great wars have demonstrated this with a vengeance.⁶

The Ten Imperative Needs of Youth

The Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association in its report on *Education for All American Youth* and discussed more completely by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals in *Planning for American Youth*⁷ outlines a program of general education in terms of what it calls *the imperative needs of youth*:

1. All youth need to develop saleable skills and those understandings and attitudes that make the worker an intelligent and productive participant in economic life. To this end, most youth need supervised work experience as well as education in the skills and knowledge of their occupations.
2. All youth need to develop and maintain good health and physical fitness and mental health.
3. All youth need to understand the rights and duties of the citizen of a democratic society, and to be diligent and competent in the performance of their obligations as members of the community and citizens of the state and nation and to have an understanding of the nations and peoples of the world.
4. All youth need to understand the significance of the family for the individual and society and the conditions conducive to successful family life.
5. All youth need to know how to purchase and use goods and services intelligently, understanding both the values received by the consumer and the economic consequences of their acts.
6. All youth need to understand the methods of science, the influence of science on human life, and the main scientific facts concerning the nature of the world and of man.
7. All youth need opportunities to develop their capacities to appreciate beauty in literature, art, music, and nature.
8. All youth need to be able to use their leisure time well and to budget it wisely, balancing activities that yield satisfactions to the individual with those that are socially useful.
9. All youth need to develop respect for other persons, to grow in their insight into ethical values and principles, to be able to live and work co-operatively with others, and to grow in the moral and spiritual values of life.
10. All youth need to grow in their ability to think rationally, to express their thoughts clearly, and to read and listen with understanding.⁸

⁶ MacLean, *op. cit.*, pp. 87-88.

⁷ Available from the Association, Washington 6, D. C. Revised, 1951. 64 pp.

⁸ See Summary of the Commission's report—*Planning for American Youth*, revised edition, 1951, p. 9, published by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

The President's Commission's Developmental Tasks of Youth

The Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education presents the task of general education thus:

1. To develop for the regulation of one's personal and civic life a code of behavior based on ethical principles consistent with democratic ideals.
2. To participate actively as an informed and responsible citizen in solving the social, economic, and political problems of one's community, state, and nation.
3. To recognize the interdependence of the different peoples of the world and one's personal responsibility for fostering international understanding and peace.
4. To understand the common phenomena in one's physical environment, to apply habits of scientific thought to both personal and civic problems, and to appreciate the implications of scientific discoveries for human welfare.
5. To understand the ideas of others and to express one's own effectively.
6. To attain a satisfactory emotional and social adjustment.
7. To maintain and improve his own health and to co-operate actively and intelligently in solving community health programs.
8. To understand and enjoy literature, art, music, and other cultural activities as expressions of personal and social experience, and to participate to some extent in some form of creative activity.
9. To acquire the knowledge and attitudes basic to a satisfying family life.
10. To choose a socially useful and personally satisfying vocation that will permit one to use to the full his particular interests and abilities.
11. To acquire and use the skills and habits involved in critical and constructive thinking.⁹

Youth's Imperative Needs

In an effort to secure the thinking of students on the "imperative needs of youth," the writer of this section once presented the problem to a class of college freshmen whose group thinking was finally summed up in nine major points.

1. Physical and mental health.
2. The development within the student of a capacity to feel at home in the world.
3. The development within the student of a capacity for self-initiated, self-directed study, independent of textbook and teacher.
4. The development within the student of a constructively critical attitude resulting in the discovery of problems, accompanied by an adequate training in the problem-solving technique.
5. The development within the student of a knowledge of the worthy objectives of life and firing him with an enthusiasm for their attainment.

⁹ *Higher Education for American Democracy*, a Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education, Vol. I, pp. 50-57.

6. The leading of the student through a process of self-discovery which would result in the accumulation of a reliable body of information regarding his interests, capacities, and aptitudes.
7. The development within the student of a universally social point of view.
8. The development within the student of an ability to make wise use of leisure time through constructive activities pursued because of interest rather than the pressure of economic necessity.
9. The development within the student of the spirit of good will which constitutes the great dynamic of the moral life.

Tead's Eight Essential Capabilities

One final suggested program, taken from the pen of Ordway Tead, will be presented. He says in summary:

We are concerned here with the following capabilities essential to the effectiveness of the whole person in a free society.

- (a) The mature person requires conscious mastery of the process of straight thinking, which implies persistent and consistent ability to weigh evidence, confront facts, and make judgments which are valid.
- (b) More specifically, there has to be a far more widely held grasp of the scientific method, both as a tool of inquiry and as a guide to mastery in both the material and personal worlds.
- (c) There has to be developed conscious capacity for more effective and amiable human relations in personal and in group experience.
- (d) There has to be genuine competence in written and oral communication.
- (e) There has to be self-consciousness and enthusiasm about the democratic aspiration and concrete grasp as to its methods.
- (f) There has to be a heightened sense of *personal responsibility* for sharing in the conduct of those group enterprises with which individuals affiliate themselves vocationally and otherwise.
- (g) There has to be sufficient intercultural and international understanding, tolerance, and sympathy to keep our citizenry in peaceful relationship to the people of the other nations of the world.
- (h) Finally, there has to be a *sufficient inner security* of the self to face the tragedies of life, including disappointment, loss, death, and life's sinfulness, and to acknowledge with reverence, wonder, and awe that there are at work in the world forces which we can but dimly glimpse and do but feebly use.¹⁰

Summary of the Basic Areas of Human Need

While some of the above statements of the essentials of general education go into greater detail than others, it will be observed that, in broad general principles, they are in virtually complete agreement. Throughout all these statements from the writings of some of our best thinkers in the field of general education, the following major areas seem to persist: (a) physical and mental health, (b) happy and effective adjustment to the work of the world, (c) happy home and family life,

¹⁰ Tead, *op. cit.*, p. 271.

(d) functional citizenship in a democratic world, (e) capacity to function as a good consumer, (f) the scientific method of problem solving, (g) worthy and creative use of leisure, (h) the universally social point of view, (i) ethical conduct, (j) worthy life philosophy, and (k) competence in communication. The general education of the secondary-school principal must involve a complete and thorough orientation in each of these major areas of universal human need.

GENERAL EDUCATION OF THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

But it may be asked, does the general education of the secondary-school principal involve more than that of other men? In terms of the areas covered, the answer must be "no." He is a man among men and shares with his fellows the universal needs of all mankind. However, in view of his responsibilities as a leader and director of the education of all youth, it may be pointed out that his orientation within these major areas might reasonably be expected to be more thorough and comprehensive. His pursuit of general education must continue throughout life with an ever more intensive fervor if he is to direct wisely the general education of others. The minimum requirements for the certification of secondary-school principals must set up guarantees for the possession of these attainments and attitudes.

PART VI

PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION OF THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

INTRODUCTION

Professional preparation of the secondary-school principal may be divided into two parts: general and specialized. General professional preparation may be further divided into the preparation common to all educational workers and the preparation common to all school administrators. The purpose of general professional preparation is a critical orientation into present-day American education—its purposes, its legal basis, its structure, its pupil personnel, its program, and its financial and other pressing problems. The purpose of specialized professional preparation is technical competency.

PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION COMMON TO ALL EDUCATIONAL WORKERS

A Philosophy of Education Derived from Democratic Principles

The foremost need in American education today is for a clearly formulated and generally accepted philosophy of education derived from

the meaning of American democracy. All educational workers need to have a clear understanding of democracy and of the contrast between democracy and other social theories. This understanding is especially needed by the educational administrator who has the responsibility for leading his staff and his community toward the attainment of the goals of democracy.

Implications of Democracy—This Committee believes that democracy implies three basic ideas: (1) respect for human personality and the provision of maximum opportunities for personality development, (2) employment of group discussion in dealing with common concerns, and (3) reliance upon the method of intelligence in solving the problems of human concern. These ideals of democracy have been succinctly stated by John Dewey in the first quotation below and by Max Otto in the second:

Democracy...means voluntary choice, based on an intelligence that is the outcome of free association and communication with others. It means a way of living together in which mutual and free consultation rule instead of force, and in which co-operation instead of brutal competition is the law of life; a social order in which all the forces that make for friendship, beauty, and knowledge are cherished in order that each individual may become what he, and he alone, is capable of becoming.

...Democracy is not a mere association of individuals whose purposes or acts are individualistic in the *laissez-faire* sense. It is not even primarily a form of government. It is the intelligent use of co-operative means for the progressive attainment of significant personalities. Significant personalities cannot be unfolded from within; they must be acquired by individuals in union with other individuals intent upon a similar quest.¹¹

Opportunities in Democratic Living—The Committee believes that every teacher and every administrator must have the opportunity on both undergraduate and graduate levels of coming to grips with the great social issues in our present world culture. It believes further that a critical evaluation of the conflicting issues leads to the conviction that only democracy provides a way of life in which each individual has the opportunity of maximum development through free association with his fellows. This first part of the professional preparation of the educational worker leads logically to the second.

Understanding the Needs of Youth

If democracy is concerned with the development of significant personalities, all educational workers must secure a thorough understanding of children and youth. This understanding must, to the extent possible, be a complete understanding of the individual: his family back-

¹¹ Quoted in *Science and General Education*, pp. 34, 35.

ground, physical fitness, mental ability, economic status, educational and vocational ambitions, and social development. Included in the study of the individual must be the principles of human growth and development. Administrators and teachers must be concerned constantly with providing appropriate conditions for maximum growth and development on the part of all young people, no matter how diverse they may be. To understand youth and their needs, prospective teachers and administrators should have contacts with them throughout the entire training program. The person who ends his professional preparation with only a knowledge of subject matter and methods is but half prepared for his work.

From his study of youth, the educational worker will be able to classify the needs with which the school must be concerned. Several categories of these needs were listed in the preceding chapter. The list most often referred to is the one suggested by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals in *Planning for American Youth*.

Curriculum and Method of American Education

The prospective teacher and administrator must have a thorough understanding of recent and current curriculum developments. The earlier idea that the curriculum consisted of textbook materials to be learned is giving way to the concept that the curriculum includes all activities of an educative nature that have a place in the program of the school. Activities of many kinds formerly called "extra," school excursions, and work experience have large contributions to make to the satisfying of the needs of youth. The paramount questions are: How can the new curricular materials be best organized and presented to promote in each individual pupil the attainment of his personal and social goals? How can curricular materials best be organized and presented to promote the ideals of democracy?

To find tentative answers to these questions, the student will need to examine critically different current conceptions of curriculum organization: the subject-centered curriculum, the experience-centered curriculum, and the core curriculum. He will need to study the results of curriculum experimentation in differing situations. From such recent publications as *Planning for American Youth*,¹² *The American High School*,¹³ *Reorganizing Secondary Education*,¹⁴ *Reorganizing the High School Curriculum*,¹⁵ and *Youth and the Future*¹⁶ he will derive a rich

¹²National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Washington 6, D. C., Revised edition, 1951.

¹³Hollis L. Caswell and others, Harper and Brothers, New York, 1946.

¹⁴V. T. Thayer, Caroline B. Zachry, and Ruth Kotinsky, D. Appleton-Century, New York, 1939.

¹⁵H. B. Albery, Macmillan Company, New York, 1947.

¹⁶American Youth Commission, American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., 1942.

store of ideas from which to formulate his own philosophy of the curriculum.

Community Life and Needs

Community-Contributor to Curricular Content—The secondary school which bases its program on the three fundamental aspects of democracy discussed earlier in this section cannot live in an ivory tower. Pupils can learn how to solve problems of common concern only by participating with others in solving problems that are real, that extend beyond the classroom into the community. The community is full of resources that are vital curricular content. Government, industry, professional life, social and religious life, recreational life—these and many other phases of community life must not only be understood but must also be participated in by our high-school students.

School-Contributor to Community Welfare—The school has many important contributions to make to the community. The community school of the future will be one in which the community uses the school for the enrichment of community living. Not only will the school provide facilities for library, recreational activities, and evening courses, but the school will also reach out into the community in many other ways. *Youth Serves the Community* contains numerous illustrations of the contributions of youth to public safety, civic beauty, community health, and agricultural and industrial improvement.¹⁷

Guidance

The development of significant personalities through satisfying the basic needs of youth demands much in the way of counseling. Youth are beset with many problems—of health, religion, social competence, civic responsibilities, vocational choice, and future educational career. All teaching in the democratic school is constantly related to basic needs. However, many problems arise which the classroom teacher is not competent to solve. The need arises at this point for the services of a guidance specialist. In the small school, this is frequently the principal; in larger schools, it is the dean of boys, the dean of girls, or the director of guidance.

Every classroom teacher should receive as a part of her professional preparation sufficient training in guidance to enable her to assist pupils in solving day-to-day problems that arise in class, study hall, and other ordinary situations. The principal needs training beyond this. He needs to become a specialist in one or more aspects of guidance and to become widely acquainted with guidance activities in communities that have developed outstanding programs.

¹⁷ Paul R. Hanna, D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1936.

Professional Relationships

All teachers and administrators should receive as a part of their professional preparation an understanding of desirable professional relationships as expressed in local, state, and regional codes of ethics. Classroom teachers should be accepted by their administrators as co-workers in the great American experiment of making education serve the ends of democracy. Administrators must recognize that teachers as well as pupils are building significant personalities and that significant personalities cannot be developed in authoritarian environments. In a democratic school situation which provides for maximum sharing of ideas, there must be a clear realization of the legal responsibilities and limitations placed upon boards of education and superintendents of schools. Schools and school systems are created by the states and must operate within the framework of state legislation.

Teachers and administrators have professional relationships with many organizations: district, state, and national teachers' associations; special organizations for teachers of English, guidance workers, supervisors, principals; and many others. The professional preparation of all school workers should provide acquaintance with the various associations that are today working for the improvement of American education.

Historical Development of American Education

Teachers and administrators should have an understanding of the major developments in American education, especially during our national period. Our educational system of today is the result of untiring efforts on the part of many great leaders and a legion of nameless teachers and administrators who believed that the "American Dream" could be realized only through education. A knowledge of the great movements serves to orient the teacher in her present position and to challenge her to make her contribution to further progress.

Present Organization of American Education

The survey of historical development should lead to a study of the organization of present-day education in the United States on local, state, and national levels. The growing role of the Federal government in education, the functions of the United States Office of Education, the functions of state boards and state departments of education, the functions of local boards of education, the role of educational boards and foundations are only some among the more important aspects of an understanding of the organization of American education.

Comparative and International Education

Finally, the Committee believes that all educational workers should have an understanding of the educational philosophies and systems of

education in the leading foreign countries¹⁸ of today. American educators must be vitally concerned with educational theory and practice in Russia, France, Italy, China, Japan, Mexico—to mention only a few countries. We have learned many important lessons from foreign practice; we may learn many important lessons in the future. But apart from what we may learn that is of direct value to us is the extremely important fact that whatever is being taught today in Russia, Japan, China, Spain, or Egypt will determine domestic social policy and international attitudes in the relatively near future. Despite two world wars, the world has not yet been made safe for democracy. We will best face the international problems of the future if American educators become acquainted with education in leading foreign countries and in turn use this knowledge to make our secondary-school students intelligent about the social, economic, and religious ideas that are being taught today to their contemporaries in Europe, Asia, Africa, and Latin America.

PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION COMMON TO ALL SCHOOL
ADMINISTRATORS

Beyond the professional preparation needed by all educational workers is the preparation needed by all school administrators. The Committee believes that secondary-school principals, along with elementary-school principals, superintendents, and other administrative officers, should be well trained in the following fields:

Principles of School Administration

School administration has developed rapidly during the twentieth century. The earlier concept of the administrator as an arbitrary organizer and manager has given way to the concept of the administrator as the school and community leader in directing the program of education best suited to community needs. The old line-and-staff plan of school organization is being supplanted by a democratic plan of organization in which each member of the school staff has the opportunity of participating in the determination of policies and programs. Preparation in principles of school administration should provide opportunity for each individual to formulate from his readings, discussions, and field work a working philosophy of administration. The most important outcomes should be a realization of the opportunities of educational leadership in democratic school systems and a working knowledge of outstanding examples of democratic school systems in operation.

Organization and Administration of American Education

Public Schools—Beyond the knowledge of the American school system essential to all school workers is the need for more detailed

¹⁸G. B. Jeffery, *The Year Book of Education*, Toronto, Canada: British Book Service, Ltd., 263-267 Adelaide Street West. 1950. 672 pp. \$12.75.

knowledge of the organization and administration of education on local, state, and national levels. This should include a critical study of the place of the Federal government in education, the ability of the states to support the kind of educational program which America should have, current proposals for further Federal aid, and the provisions and operation of major Federal laws such as the Smith-Hughes, George-Deen, and George-Barden acts. It should include a critical study of the organization and administration of education on the state level: the composition and functions of state boards of education, the composition and functions of state departments of education, development of standards for elementary and secondary education, movements for the upward extensions of public education beyond the twelfth grade and downward extensions below the first grade, certification requirements, and many other phases of state school administration. It should include on the local level a critical study of the composition and functions of boards of education, organization of education best suited to community needs, articulation of all parts of the system, curriculum development on all levels, salary schedules, and in-service education.

Nonpublic Schools—A much neglected aspect of this part of the professional preparation of school administrators is a study of the organization and the program of nonpublic education. Public schools have numerous relationships with private schools and especially with the Catholic schools in the local community. Catholic education in the United States has become highly organized and Catholic educators have their own national organization, the National Catholic Educational Association. Every school administrator needs to know the purposes, the organization, and the program of Catholic and other non-public education.

Legal Aspects, School Finance, and Public Relations—In addition to the things already mentioned in this section, the school administrator needs to be prepared in the school laws of his state, to understand all phases of the financing of public education, and to know the principles and practices of good business management. Equally important is a knowledge of best current practices in plant construction and maintenance. Finally, the administrator's professional preparation is not complete without a thorough training in the public relations of the school.

Municipal Administration in Relation to Public Education

The local school operates within a framework of municipal government. While very largely neglected in the education of school administrators, it is highly important that they become well acquainted with the organization and administration of local governments. The compo-

sition and functions of city councils, the police department, municipal the organization and administration of local governments. The composition and functions of city councils, the police department, municipal courts, welfare and recreation departments, and safety departments are all important to superintendents and principals.

SPECIALIZED PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION OF THE
SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

The secondary-school principal should have specialized preparation in addition to the general professional training common to all administrators. The Committee believes this training should include the following:

Critical Analysis of Present-Day American Secondary Education

The purpose of this part of the specialized preparation is to provide a background of knowledge of secondary education in the nation at large which will enable the student to see clearly the crucial issues which are present and which must be faced squarely if secondary education is to make its greatest contribution to American democracy.

Inequalities in American Education—Perhaps the most significant characteristic is the great inequality of educational opportunity that exists between urban and rural districts, between well-to-do and poor districts, between the southern states and the northern and western states, between well-to-do families and poor families. These facts are frequently ignored by educators who are proud of the way in which secondary education in America has theoretically opened its doors to all youth. A realization of the actual facts should lead the principal to begin with his staff a study of inequalities in the local community to the end that they may be removed to the extent possible. Every principal and every teacher must be convinced that democracy is failing when our secondary schools enroll only seventy per cent of youth of secondary-school age, when large numbers drop out before graduation, and when, for every boy or girl who goes to college, another boy or girl of equal intelligence and promise does not go. We are failing to do our utmost in making it possible "that each individual may become what he, and he alone, is capable of becoming."

Other Problems to be Analyzed—The critical analysis will include many other things in addition to inequalities. It will be concerned with horizontal and vertical organization, with the program of studies, with state and Federal control, and with the role of regional accrediting associations. Out of this part of his professional study, the student should be able to see clearly many of the problems which he must face in his work as a secondary-school principal.

Organization and Administration of the Secondary School in Terms of the Meaning of Democracy

Our task in the school is the development of significant personalities by following the methods of democracy: (1) respect for human personality, (2) employment of the group method in dealing with common concerns, and (3) reliance upon the method of intelligence in solving individual and group problems. We must conclude that these aspects must direct the entire educational program. Any other position would be inconsistent. The task of the principal is to lead the staff, pupils, and community in such a way that they will develop as significant personalities, not only aware of but also capable of working toward the solution of our world-wide social problems.

This large responsibility needs to be broken into parts that can be more readily understood. The Committee believes the following must be included and integrated around the central concepts of democracy:

1. The role of the secondary school in the social order
2. Administration of the secondary school
3. The curriculum of the secondary school—Grades 7-14
4. Supervision in the secondary school
5. Evaluation of secondary education
6. Guidance in secondary schools

Internships for Secondary-School Principals

The Committee does not believe that educational leaders can be developed apart from opportunities to participate in good school systems. The professional program outlined in this section should be a joint responsibility of the teacher-training institutions and the public schools. Much is to be learned in organized courses, but much more will be learned when the student is placed for several months as an intern or assistant in a secondary school where he has the opportunity of studying at firsthand the problems that have been discussed in class. Leadership qualities can be tested best in real situations rather than in the artificial environment of the university classroom.

In summary, the Committee believes that the purpose of the professional preparation of secondary-school principals is to develop leaders of democratic schools. It believes that much of the professional preparation will be the same as that of teachers and of other school administrators. In outline form the total preparation should include:

- Philosophy of education
- Study of youth and their needs
- Curriculum and method
- Community life and needs
- Guidance
- Professional relationships
- Development of American education

Comparative and international education
Principles of school administration
Organization and administration of American education
Municipal administration in relation to public education
Analysis of present-day American secondary education
Organization and administration of the secondary school in terms of the meaning of democracy
Internships

Some of these large areas may be taught in single courses; others demand several courses. Probably two full years will be required to accomplish this, especially if an internship is a part of the training program. Some of the preparation in individual cases may have been so well done on the undergraduate level that the student may be permitted to omit it. Possibly some of the preparation will not be required for initial certification but will be required for renewal of initial certificates or for more advanced certificates.

PART VII

IN-SERVICE GROWTH OF THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

NEEDS AND RESPONSIBILITY FOR IN-SERVICE GROWTH

Responsibility of the State

It is a responsibility of the state to provide properly prepared leaders for our secondary schools. In order to do this, most of the states have created minimum standards for the general education, professional preparation, experience, and other qualifications necessary for the prospective principal. As the knowledge of school administration has increased and become more complex, it has become necessary for the states to raise their standards gradually. Moreover, it has become apparent that the importance of the responsibility of the secondary-school principal and the dynamic character of our democratic society require a continuous professional in-service growth on the part of our secondary-school leaders. Thus the state is challenged to provide principals for secondary schools who in addition to meeting minimum standards recognize the needs for a continuously widening perspective. Likewise, the state has an obligation to do more than provide minimum standards which, once met, are considered final proof of competency. It must encourage the secondary-school principal to keep pace with educational practices and social trends by instituting requirements which guarantee his continuous professional growth while in service.

Responsibility of the Individual

The secondary-school principal, too, has responsibilities for his own professional growth. In his position as the educational leader of

the secondary school, he must be able to direct the educational program of his school community in such a way that the requirements of a democratic society will be met. This no longer can be accomplished by the mere performance of clerical duties in an isolated school program. Neither can it be accomplished if the secondary-school principal gives only "lip-service" to the minimum state requirements for his position regardless of whether these minimum conditions are of a continuing character. As the educational leader, the principal must be alert to the pulse of his school, education as a whole, and the community and society in general. Since much of the professional growth of the principal must take place in service, it is recognized that experience provides one form of in-service growth. While experience is not always a reliable gauge of professional growth, the principal must be alert to its possibilities. He must maintain a critical attitude toward himself and his job, which will enable him to increase in professional stature. Another responsibility for the secondary-school principal is that he must ever be sensitive to new developments in educational practices. His professional growth must include an increasing knowledge of boys and girls as research provides new understandings of them. Familiarity with new methods, techniques, and practices of secondary education form a part of his professional in-service growth when these become contributing influences to the improvement of the school. Also, it is basic that the professional growth of the secondary-school principal includes the constant refinement of the methods of democratic administration as practiced in the secondary school.

POSSIBLE MEANS FOR PROFESSIONAL GROWTH

There are many possibilities for promoting the in-service professional growth of secondary-school principals. Prominent among these are the use of facilities of educational institutions, activity in professional associations, travel, participations in community activities, research, participation in hobbies, workshop or educational conferences, reading, and working with other school personnel on the improvement of the educational program of the school. Several different procedures may be used in the accomplishment of professional in-service growth in these areas. Spare time devoted to an activity may be used by some secondary-school principals in order to grow professionally. Vacation periods provide other principals with the necessary opportunity, while for many principals it may be most convenient to take leaves of absence from their jobs in order to allow for professional growth.

Use of Facilities of Educational Institutions

The possibilities are extensive for in-service growth through the use of facilities of educational institutions. These provide a variety of

means for professional advancement. Attendance in summer school is one means available to most principals. Here the opportunity is offered for the principal to return to school and participate in the study of problems directly related to his growth. Many institutions open their doors and increase their facilities to accommodate secondary-school principals who seek to improve their professional status. Extension courses provided by educational institutions are another source for in-service development. Secondary-school principals may take advantage of offerings given after school hours in their own community or in nearby cities. Extension courses of a correspondence nature are offered by other educational institutions. Special conferences, lectures, workshops, and other programs, sponsored by educational institutions, are means for professional development which are available to many secondary-school principals. The initiative for these may come from the state, the educational institution, or from the principal himself. There are educational institutions which allow the secondary-school principal to give instruction in courses of school administration. These courses, given on a part-time basis or in summer sessions, provide excellent opportunities for the in-service growth of the principal.

Activity in Professional Associations

Activity in professional associations is another means for professional growth. These associations are of many types including: local, county, district, state, and national groups. Activities of the secondary-school principal might include: developing professional programs, presenting research data of value in the solution of school problems, writing about administrative procedures, participating in group discussions of problems of mutual interest with other school principals, and providing leadership in the shaping of practices and methods of administration in secondary schools. These and many more activities have stimulating effects for the secondary-school principal. It is needless to say that the quality of the effort put into these activities will determine to a large extent their value as a means of in-service growth.

Travel

The broadening experiences of travel have been recognized by several states as desirable for in-service growth for secondary-school principals. The pleasant aspects of travel have been appreciated by principals and many of them participate in this form of personal development. Summer vacation periods usually provide the best opportunity for most principals to indulge in travel. However, many secondary-school principals live in communities which have scenic areas or other places within short distances which provide professional growth. The principal may travel to these in an afternoon, over night, or on short trips of two or three days.

It should be pointed out that if travel is to be used as a means of in-service growth, the traveler must visit a variety of places. Journeying repeatedly to a given spot each vacation period has the tendency to limit the values of this form of growth even though many historic or scenic spots are visited en route. Vacation trips when used as a device for growth should be planned carefully and the values of visiting new places enjoyed to the fullest extent possible. In planning his itinerary, the principal should consider visiting only spots which would have the greatest value for his growth and while at these spots should maintain an appreciative and inquisitive attitude. Further, it should be noted that travel is not the only form of in-service growth. Although the values of travel are undeniable, it should be considered only as one of many means of promoting professional growth in service.

Participation in Community Activities

The participation by the secondary-school principal in community activities gives him opportunities to grow professionally. In such activities he may form more intimate working relationships with the people of the community. Also, it becomes possible for him to see community educational needs in a broader perspective and to bring the school more closely into the total civic picture. The areas of community participation are many for the secondary-school principal. Service clubs, private organizations for the cultural and educational development of young men and women, churches, and civic organizations of a social character are many in most communities. All of these have value for the professional growth of the principal. Participation in a wide variety of activities generally offers widest possibilities for growth. However, activity directed in one field of interest often provides opportunity for ample professional development. Moderation must be observed in the participation in this type of activity. There is real danger, when the secondary-school principal is pushed into many positions of community leadership, of either the neglect of school work or the breakdown of the principal's health.

Research in Education

Research in various phases of education gives the secondary-school principal an opportunity to increase his professional stature. Many problems confront the secondary-school principal, and study of these problems as he comes face to face with them is a part of his in-service growth. He may pursue research as a part of formal study in some educational institution on the graduate level, or research may be carried on informally. Often it is a part of degree requirements in the master's or doctor's programs of educational institutions. In this case,

many opportunities are given for the principal to direct his interest to research under the guidance of specialists. Writing articles for professional magazines and giving speeches to civic organizations are ways of providing stimulation for the principal to do research.

Closely aligned with individual research is the possibility for the professional growth of the principal through working with other school personnel on the improvement of the educational program of the school. It is an obligation of the secondary-school principal to direct research into the many problems facing the school and to present the results of his studies to the public. When the principal takes active leadership in conducting research, he has the opportunity to broaden himself professionally. Leading educators agree that education for democracy is achieved best when democratic action prevails in the school. There is no finer way to learn of democracy than by having all personnel of the school work together to solve the problems of the school. The principal is challenged to assume leadership in this. Carefully drawn plans for the administrative aspects of the co-operative study of school problems must be made. Friendly interests must be shown by the principal in helping others who share in the co-operative study. Stimulative guidance must be given as the study progresses. Professional growth on the part of both principal and staff is bound to result from this kind of leadership.

Participation in Workshops or Educational Conferences

Workshops or educational conferences often are stimulated by educational institutions, professional associations, state departments of education, and other groups for the in-service growth of the secondary-school principal. Such workshops or conferences may provide many opportunities for intensive study of school problems. In them, leading educators may discuss the results of research made into educational problems. Also, secondary-school principals may work together toward the solution of educational problems. New administrative methods and techniques, which would benefit the secondary school, are described and suggested. Participation by the principal in such workshops or conferences has many values. It might be best that the stimulation for workshops or conferences come from the principals themselves. In this case the planning, the program, and participation by the principal become the result of their own efforts and they derive more benefits thereby.

Reading, Radio, Television, and Lecture

The professional growth of the secondary-school principal may be furthered by reading, listening to the radio and television, attending lectures or concerts, and by participating in the many normal activities of daily life. The tools of communication in our modern society have

made available a host of means for broadening knowledge. The secondary-school principal may easily take advantage of these for his in-service growth. Good professional books and magazines should be read to keep alert to trends in education and administrative methods of education. Other good fiction or non-fiction books should be read for their cultural value. The radio, television, and newspaper may be used by the secondary-school principal as sources of valuable material for knowledge of the everyday world. The principal who takes advantage of these tools will find them excellent means for in-service growth.

Hobbies

Participation in hobbies aids in the development of broad personal interests and proves valuable as a contributor to the in-service growth of secondary-school principals. Cultivating flowers; collecting items; making objects of wood, clay, or metal, or any of the many activities in which men and women participate may, if properly developed, prove extremely valuable for professional broadening.

RELATIONSHIPS OF GROWTH TO RESPONSIBILITY

There are definite relationships of professional growth to the responsibility of the principalship. As the importance of his position receives greater recognition, the secondary-school principal is obligated to grow in professional stature. Our way of life which is in constant change gives increasing responsibilities to secondary-school principals. As the principal is given more responsibilities, he must grow professionally in order to be able to meet these responsibilities. Thus, it is imperative for the welfare of the school, the boys and girls, and the principal himself that the principal of the secondary school be in continuous process of professional growth in service.

CONDITIONS AFFECTING GROWTH

Proper Determination and Evaluation of Needs

In any of the areas of possibilities for the in-service growth of secondary-school principals, there are conditions which affect the amount of growth which takes place. Among these conditions are interest, the amount of time spent on growth, and the means used for growth. It is evident that a mere passing interest in any of the methods used for growth will not bring about the most desirable results. It is important that the secondary-school principal recognize and evaluate his needs for growth and then determine what areas will aid him most in his quest for professional development. A systematic attack, accompanied by proper interest and adequate time, will prove invaluable for his growth.

Personal Desire and Proper Attitude of Superiors

Factors conducive to in-service professional growth must be present to encourage the secondary-school principal to take the necessary steps for his growth. He must possess personal qualities which will make him desire to grow professionally. On the other hand, his superior officers, the superintendent and board of education, must provide him with income adequate to enable him to live without the necessity of seeking after-school-hour employment. He must have freedom during periods when school is not in session to be able to take advantage of the opportunities for growth presented in the summer. School budgets should include financial aid to encourage the in-service growth of the secondary-school principal. Provisions should be made to pay expenses or part of expenses to professional meetings. Bonuses and salary increments should be given as encouragement for in-service growth. The use of the bonus provides opportunity to give financial aid for in-service growth over and above the normal salary increment of the secondary-school principal. Bonuses may be given in flat amounts or they may be made to cover or partly cover expenses incurred in an activity involving professional growth. Salary increments for professional growth give opportunity to have each step in the professional growth of the principal accompanied by an appropriate increase in salary.

RESPONSIBILITY OF STATE AND LOCAL COMMUNITY

Adequate Certification Requirements

The responsibility for encouraging the in-service development of the secondary-school principal should be shared by both the state and local communities. Adequate certification requirements are a means by which the state may implement in-service growth of the principal. These requirements must be made to insure his continuous growth.

Scholarships and Fellowships

Often a desire exists upon the part of the principal to continue study, but the means are insufficient because of family responsibilities. Scholarships, fellowships, or reduced fees at the state universities or institutions subsidized by the state are methods which can be used to encourage the principal to continue his professional growth. In addition to contributing a share of the cost of the in-service growth, the state must encourage the local community to aid the principal in his growth processes. When the state and the local community co-operate to enable the principal to continue his growth in service, they are making a valuable contribution to the improvement of the secondary schools and to the education of the boys and girls of the community.

PART VIII

FACTORS PROMOTING AND CONDITIONING CERTIFICATION PROGRAMS

LOCAL, STATE, AND NATIONAL RELATIONSHIPS

The certification of secondary-school principals is primarily a state responsibility and function. Some states, city, county, or other unit systems have required certification provisions which go beyond those of the state program. Historically, state certification has evolved from local requirements; therefore, it is necessarily conditioned by many local and area influences. Also, to a somewhat limited extent, interstate and national influence have operated on certification organization. Through such agencies as the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, the United States Office of Education, and regional accrediting agencies, national and regional participation is increasing.

GROWTH OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN NUMBER AND COMPLEXITY

The report of the President's Commission on Higher Education, published in December, 1947, focused public attention on the phenomenal expansion of the American public high school since the turn of the century. According to this report, "The 700,000 enrollment in high schools in the school year 1900 was equal to only 11 per cent of the youth of usual high-school age, 14 through 17 years old. This increased in 1940 to over 7,000,000 students representing 73 per cent of the youth."¹⁹ According to Dr. Glenn, in 1943-44 there were 29,938 secondary schools in the United States. The number of secondary schools in a single state in 1950-51 ranges from 1,463 in Texas and 1,438 in Illinois to only 40 in Nevada and 40 in Delaware. The size and type of secondary schools in a particular state are definitely related to the number of secondary schools. In turn, certification is affected by the size and type of secondary schools.

GROWTH AND COMPLEXITY OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

The rapid increase in secondary-school population during the past half century has been accompanied by a growing complexity of the work of the secondary-school principal. Among the factors which have contributed to this complexity and broadened scope have been:

¹⁹ *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Vol. I, Establishing the Goals, A Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education, Washington, D. C. December, 1947, p. 25.

1. The influx of youth into the secondary schools of tremendously varied abilities, interests, economic, social, and cultural backgrounds.
2. The changing concepts of secondary education from an earlier emphasis on preparation for college to the present interest and concern in the broader areas of life, such as citizenship, health, recreation, and vocation.
3. A mounting body of research and technical knowledge bearing upon secondary-school organization, supervision, and administration in guidance, curriculum, programming, health, *etc.*
4. An increase in the number of schools with large enrollments.

VARIABILITY OF SIZE—WITHIN AND AMONG STATES

While secondary schools in our country are still predominantly small in enrollment, there has been a trend toward consolidation. In 1929-30, slightly more than one half, or 54 per cent, of the secondary schools had an enrollment of fewer than one hundred pupils and over three fourths of our secondary schools had fewer than two hundred students. Evidences of the effect of the size of the school upon certification are directly seen in certification standards of such states as Arizona, Delaware, Kansas, Minnesota, and Oregon. These states issue secondary-school principals' certificates which have requirements determined by the enrollment of the secondary school.

DIFFERENCES IN POPULATION DENSITY AND TERRITORY SIZE

The population density and spread in any state affect directly the types and kinds of schools which are in operation and thereby the certification pattern. The average total population per school ranges from 12,607 in New Jersey and 11,689 in Rhode Island, both thickly settled and highly urbanized states, to 1,908 in South Dakota and 2,095 in Nebraska. The square miles of territory per school ranges from 2,387 in Nevada and 1,693 in Arizona to only 22 in New Jersey and 17 in Rhode Island.

COMPLEXITIES OF ORGANIZATIONAL PATTERNS

Many states issue principals' certificates which attempt to meet the needs for the various types of secondary schools within their borders. Dr. Glenn found that in 1929-30 there were four major types of secondary schools in the United States:

1. The conventional four-year type of high school representing 73.8 per cent, or nearly three fourths of the total.
2. Fourteen and nine tenths per cent were reorganized five- and six-year high schools.

3. Eight and three tenths per cent were reorganized junior high schools.
4. Three per cent were reorganized senior high schools.

Within these four classifications were a number of subdivisions and variations. This diversity in organizational pattern is reflected clearly in the various state certification programs.

FUNCTIONS OF PRINCIPALS VARY

Differences in the functions and responsibilities of secondary-school principals naturally condition certification standards and, in turn, are conditioned by the various factors of size of school, population served, and organization pattern mentioned above. In some states it is evident that the requirements which have been instituted for teachers are deemed sufficient to meet the needs for educational leadership demanded of secondary-school principals. This is especially true in those states which have many schools of small enrollments in which the principal spends the major portion of his time as a teacher. In thirteen states the requirements are the same for the secondary-school principal as for teachers of secondary schools. Thirty-four states maintain that the principal of a secondary school occupies a position of leadership in the community and that his position necessitates special preparation. A good example of a statement which indicates the functions and duties which are assigned to high-school principals is that made by the state of Ohio:

The principal or supervisor:

1. Should hold a professional—or permanent—teaching certificate which identifies him as a successful and experienced teacher in the field for which administrative or supervisory certificate is sought.
2. Should possess a basic knowledge of the principles of effective supervision and should demonstrate them in practice.
3. Should understand the processes of evaluation of the whole school program in the light of its philosophy and objectives and should apply them to the improvement of the school program.
4. Should possess the type of social and professional leadership in both school and community which will cause him to be recognized as an organizer and leader.
5. Should know and apply the fundamental principles of personnel administration.
6. Should have functional knowledge of the ethics of the teaching profession.
7. Should have functional knowledge of the principles and procedure of guidance.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR PROFESSIONAL GROWTH VITAL

Expansion of the discussion of the importance of and availability of facilities for professional educational growth in relationship to cer-

tification is not needed in this chapter, nor is evidence of variability of conditions in this area needed. However, the importance of this factor should not be overlooked. The impracticality of setting up certification standards and requirements without accompanying such policies and practices with practical possibilities of realization is understood by all and particularly by those personally affected.

FINANCIAL SUPPORT NECESSARY

The economic side of the picture has its direct relationship to the recruitment and advancement of secondary-school principals. Salaries paid must be such that certification standards can be met; otherwise, the certification pattern and program lack foundational financial support. Data concerning the financial status of the secondary-school principal can be readily obtained. It is common knowledge that tremendous variability exists in such salaries, not only between states but also within states. A sound program of certification must inevitably be accompanied by an adequate program of financial support on all levels—local, state, and national.

PART IX

PROPOSED PROGRAM FOR STATE CERTIFICATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

At an early meeting the Committee arrived at the following broad agreements respecting the certification of secondary-school principals. These agreements have been used as guides in the formulation of the recommended program of certification.

1. Certification should be concerned first of all with educational leadership in schools dedicated to the promotion of democracy. Technical administration skills are important only as means of facilitating the achievement of democratic goals.
2. Certification requirements should be based upon under-graduate preparation that has emphasized, along with professional preparation for teaching, the general education necessary for the orientation of the individual in the universal areas of human need.
3. Certification requirements should be the same for the different levels of secondary education. The Committee does not see the need for separate certificates for principals of junior high schools, senior high schools, and junior colleges, or for principals of trade, technical, or vocational schools.
4. Requirements for initial certification should be high enough to insure effective leadership but not so high as to exclude promis-

ing men or women. The Master's degree with emphasis on secondary-school administration broadly conceived is believed to be a defensible national minimum requirement.

5. Emphasis in the required professional preparation should be upon broad areas of education and experience rather than upon narrow techniques of administration.
6. Requirements for initial certification should include two or three years of teaching experience. While some teaching experience on the elementary-school level is desirable, experience on the secondary-school level is believed to be essential.
7. Requirements for a second and higher certificate should include evidence of at least three years of successful experience under an initial certificate and continued professional growth.
8. The level of certification requirements should not be determined by present modal practice among the states; rather, the requirements should raise the level of secondary education in all.
9. Certification requirements should be such that reciprocity arrangements among the states will be facilitated.

This proposed program is based upon a recognition of the vital importance of acquiring and maintaining strong and capable leaders in the position of secondary-school principal in the public schools of the United States. It is, however, developed with an understanding of the tremendously varying conditions which now exist among states, and even within the same state. It is intended that the proposed program may serve as a guide and as a goal toward which those in position of authority and responsibility for certification in our states may work. Also, the proposed program may be of value as a basis for continued co-operative relationship between states within certain geographical areas in the United States. It is recognized that considerable adjustment and adaptation within the pattern of the suggested program will be needed by various states. The following proposed program is divided into three parts: basic qualifications of the secondary-school principal, character of the certification program, and specific standards to be met within the recommended state program.

BASIC QUALIFICATIONS OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Character

The secondary-school principal should be a person of high moral and ethical ideas and character, a person who can truly inspire and lead his fellow workers, as well as the co-operation of students and citizens in the community.

Citizenship

The secondary-school principal should be a person who truly exemplifies and acts on the principles and practices consonant with our American way of democratic living. He should be a person who wholeheartedly subscribes to, and in every way supports, the democratic way of life.

Cultural Background

The secondary-school principal should be a person with a breadth and depth of academic background and understanding in such fields as the social studies, science, arts, mathematics, and the languages. While it is understood that these fields are most extensive and that any one person cannot attempt to be a scholar in all, the necessity for some background of this type is very apparent.

General Professional Educational Training

The secondary-school principal should have a background of knowledge and understanding in the field of education which may include such areas as the history and philosophy of education, general methods, psychology, curriculum development, and child growth and development.

Maturity

The secondary-school principal should be a person of sufficient maturity and judgment that his leadership will be properly respected, sought, and followed. However, he will lead creatively in such a manner that he stimulates others to grow, while he acquires personal competency and capability.

Specific Professional Skill and Knowledge

The secondary-school principal should be a person who has acquired through study and experience a foundation of knowledge and skill of the administrative and supervisory field so that he may work in harmony and in a pattern of constantly growing professional service with others.

Physical and Mental Strength

The secondary-school principal should be a person who has a strength of mind and body that will support the constant drain which the position of principal makes upon his resources. Not only must he have this mental and physical strength and stamina, but he must also have the power of continually renewing his strength through a sound pattern of personal living.

CHARACTER OF THE CERTIFICATION PROGRAM

With the above general principles in mind concerning the basic qualifications of the secondary-school principal, the following characteristics of the proposed program of certification are suggested:

State-wide and All-inclusive

The program of certification for secondary-school principals should be state-wide and the certification of all secondary-school principals in public and private secondary schools should be compulsory.

Co-operatively Evolved

The program of certification for secondary-school principals in each state should be co-operatively evolved by representative of all groups most intimately concerned in the state—secondary-school principals, superintendents of schools, secondary-school teachers, state department officials, teacher training institution leaders, and one or more lay leaders of the state.

Reflect Basic Requirements

The program of certification for secondary-school principals should reflect the requirements previously stated: the knowledge, experience, and personal qualifications expected of such a person.

Dynamic Nature—Professional Growth

The program of certification should not be of a static nature, but it should reflect the continued professional growth and development expected of the school principal if he is to be worthy of his position of leadership.

Dynamic Nature—Changing Responsibilities

The program of certification should, furthermore, reflect the continued changing responsibilities, functions, and duties of the principal as a leader, not only in the secondary school, but also as an important person within the community.

Adequate Safeguards

The program of certification should contain adequate safeguards which will make it possible to eliminate or correct bad leadership within the position of the secondary-school principalship.

Clearly Stated

The state certification requirements should be clearly stated in definite terms in regard to authorization of fields of service, terms of certificates, requirements, and other details. These requirements should be so clearly stated that misunderstanding may be avoided.

Adequate Minimum Standards

Standards should be high enough to provide the minimum necessary backgrounds of experience, training, and other qualifications. They should be at such a point that they will assist in attracting desirable candidates. They should not be so high that they create an artificial and unnecessary shortage of candidates.

Flexible

The program should be sufficiently flexible to meet varying administrative conditions and practices. It should not serve to crystallize a particular form of organization or to impede desirable educational experimentation, research, and progress.

Functionally Stated

The requirements for professional training should be stated, as far as possible, within the category of actual areas of experience and training, rather than merely upon points and credits *per se*.

Inter-state Attractiveness

The program should serve to attract competent leaders from other states, as well as from within a particular state. Artificial and unnecessary blocks to the recruiting of candidates should be avoided.

Recognition of Varying Educational Facilities

Certification programs must necessarily take into consideration the available educational and experience facilities which are vital to professional growth. They should not, however, be conditioned by too immediate or too limited consideration of the possibilities of providing sufficient facilities where they do not at present exist. In some areas the establishment of certification standards may serve to motivate and assist in the provision of facilities which may be lacking, but are within the possibility of development.

Stimulate In-service Growth

The program of certification should be so organized that it serves to encourage and stimulate in-service growth with the thought in mind that "He who would teach should never cease to learn." This quotation is particularly applicable to the important position of the principal.

Reasonable Interpretation

The program of certification should be such that it allows for reasonable interpretation by those charged with the executive responsibility for carrying out the program. It should be kept in mind that the definite goal or purpose of certification relates to the provision of the highest qualities of educational leadership possible by the principal.

SPECIFIC STANDARDS

Explicitly, the following standards are proposed as a definite basis for certification within our states.

Age

Minimum age of 21 years.

Citizenship

Citizen of the United States.

Character

High moral character attested by written testimonials, or by such methods as may seem to be valid.

Health

Sound physical and mental health attested by a physician's certificate, or means which best determine health.

Experience

Experience of at least two years in teaching on the secondary-school level or a permanent teacher's certificate.

Basic Educational Background

A basic background of educational training and experience from a four-year accredited degree-granting institution. This should include a general orientation to the universal human needs, the outcome of which should be the development of emotionalized attitudes rather than mere acquisition of knowledge. This broad cultural background should include work in such areas as English, social studies, etc.

PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION

General Professional Preparation

The general professional preparation should include such areas as:

1. *Methods of Teaching*—Including work from such subdivisions as methods of teaching in the secondary schools, visual aids in education, and individualizing instruction.
2. *Educational Psychology*—Including work from such subdivisions as psychology of learning, understanding the needs of youth, human growth and development, adolescent psychology, educational measurements, and mental hygiene.
3. *Health Education*—Including work from such subdivisions as personal health problems, school health problems, nutrition, health administration, and animal biology.
4. *Curriculum*—Including work from such subdivisions as principles of curriculum construction, the high-school curriculum, a study of the curriculum in one specific field, and extracurricular activities.
5. *Foundations of Education*—Including work from such subdivisions as history of education, principles of education, philosophy of education, comparative education, and educational sociology.
6. *Guidance*—Including work from such subdivisions as principles of guidance, counseling, vocational guidance, educational guidance, research in guidance, and student personnel problems.
7. *Specialization in One or More Fields*—These fields may be among those which are commonly required for certification for a secondary-school teacher's certificate, such as English, etc.

Specialized Professional Preparation

The specialized professional preparation should be equivalent to the Master's degree. The work in this area should include a critical analysis of present American secondary education as well as a detailed study of the organization, administration, and supervision of secondary education. The advanced study should include such areas as: inequalities in secondary education, horizontal and vertical development, state and Federal control, accrediting agencies, the role of the secondary school in the social order, curriculum development, community relations, and techniques of administration, supervision evaluation and guidance.

REQUIRED RENEWAL OF INITIAL CERTIFICATE

Renewal of the initial certificate following a minimum term of service of three years, provided that evidences of continued growth and satisfactory service are given. Among the evidences may be:

1. Graduate study in courses dealing with administration and supervision of secondary education.
2. Participation in educational workshops for secondary-school principals initiated by state department of education or other comparable agency designated by the department.
3. Research or study involving problems of secondary-school administration and study.
4. Travel and investigation including visitation of other schools or agencies relating to secondary education.
5. Participation with organizations and agencies where individuals deal with secondary-school problems.

Advanced Professional Certification

Required or optional, depending upon conditions within the state. This certificate should be issued periodically and should be renewable in periods of from five to ten years, depending upon conditions within the state. The granting of the advanced professional certificate should be based upon the presentation of evidence of continued growth and satisfactory service as listed under renewal of initial certificates.

Revocation Provisions

Revocation of certificates should be provided in case of demonstrated incompetency or moral misbehavior. This action should be taken only after full and fair opportunity for hearing and judgment are provided in accordance with the certification pattern in each state.

General Authorization for Service

The principal's certificate should authorize service in any type or size of secondary school. It should be made available to supervising principals, as well as to those whose duties are essentially similar to those of the principal.

In conclusion, the need for careful analysis and thorough implementation of the recommended program is evident. The steps which need to be taken on local, state, and national levels must be clearly defined, and a program of action be considered and established. The implementation of such a program calls for the highest possible quality of administrative skill and educational leadership.

NEWS ITEMS

NEA PRESENTS HONORARY MEMBERSHIP CARDS TO 120 EXCHANGE TEACHERS—One hundred and twenty exchange teachers from Great Britain, France, and Canada—teaching during 1951-1952 in public elementary and secondary schools throughout the United States—are now carrying membership cards with the compliments of the National Education Association of the United States. The 120 teachers will teach for the current school year in the regular teaching positions of 120 U. S. teachers who have been exchanged with them on a teacher-for-teacher basis. Of the total group, 92 are from England and Wales, 10 from Scotland, 7 from France, and 11 from Canada.

DEFENSE DEPARTMENT HAS NOT REQUESTED CHANGE IN STUDENT DEFERMENT POLICY—Mrs. Anna Rosenberg, Assistant Secretary of Defense, in a special statement to the American Council on Education states: "In the light of current manpower requirements of the Armed Forces, there is no prospect or plan for abolishing student deferment. It may be necessary, however, to decrease the number of such deferments next year (the academic year 1952-1953). No change has been recommended to Selective Service that would affect the status of college students in any way during the current academic year (1951-1952)."

THIRTY-FIRST ANNUAL MEETING OF COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES SCHEDULED NOV. 22-24—The 31st annual meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies of the National Education Association will open in Detroit, November 22 for a three-day conference. Key speakers include T. V. Smith, Syracuse University, who will speak on the subject, "Ideas That Have Made America"; Ernest O. Melby, dean of the School of Education, New York University, will discuss, "American Schools Must Deal With Ideas." Senator Blair Moody of Michigan will speak at the annual convention banquet, November 23. Following the address of Myrtle Roberts of Dallas, Texas, council president, November 24, Ryland Cray, Teachers College, Columbia University, will present the 1951 *Yearbook*. Marion Folsom, chairman of the Committee for Economic Development, will speak at a luncheon meeting the final day of the convention on the subject, "Economic Problems and Issues in a Defense Economy."

High School Principals Suggest Changes in the Preservice Education of Principals

C. EARLE HOSHALL

A RECENT questionnaire study secured replies from one hundred fifty-two high-school principals to this question: What, if any, are the important changes that you would suggest colleges should make in the preservice education of prospective principals?

These suggestions were extremely varied in nature and in type, including direct and implied criticisms of colleges and college personnel, practical and impractical suggestions for changes that should be made, expressed personal "gripes," or what would seem to be pet hobbies. They ranged from extreme conservatism or reaction to rabid experimentation. Some were "viciously" critical of colleges, others highly complimentary.

In fine, these principals as a group believe: (1) Too many college instructors are incapable and inexperienced, and too little aware of, or informed about, the actual problems of principals at work today. Some principals criticized college instructors for their lack of public school experience. They, in general, insisted that this was responsible more than any other factor for the ineffectiveness of college courses, that such courses should be taught only by individuals who had, among other elements of preparation, backgrounds of experience including successful service as high-school teachers and administrators. Some typical comments were:

From a Principal in New Mexico—Secure instructors with more actual experience in the field. As the years slip by, college instructors tend to grow less practical and less convincing.

From Iowa—Too many college instructors have not had sufficient experi-

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ence (if any) on the firing line in real life situations; consequently, theory and practicality are distorted and the uninitiated is due for embarrassing disillusionments.

From Connecticut—A number of instructors in colleges could not teach in public schools because they lack the techniques of teaching and the necessary experience required for public school work.

From Washington—Dear Professor: You cannot find out about school problems from a college desk any more than you can learn to ride a bicycle from an instruction book. Get out of your school and into a high school for at least every other year. You will be the most popular and most valuable educator in your state. I don't mean visit, I mean assume the responsibility and the liability of the job.

In line with this last suggestion, others have suggested that every five, seven, or ten years college instructors be required to work full time in public school positions. In their statements, they also have emphasized the thought that college instructors, who in earlier years may have been qualified and alert to the problems current at that time, have failed to maintain necessary, actual contact with the schools and, as a result, are thinking in terms of the schools they knew and worked in, fifteen and twenty years ago.

(2) Courses are too theoretical, have too much overlapping, and should be revised on the basis of actual problems and needs of principals. This one criticism was the one most often expressed—practically every one of them saying it in one form or another. Typical comments were:

From Maryland—More practical courses, less gold-plated theory, considering size of school, type of community, dealing with actual problems.

From Indiana—Tell them the "facts of life." I regard many theoretical courses as useless.

From Nebraska—More practice, less theory.

Some of the principals in their comments linked both (1) and (2) together by suggesting more practical courses and then saying that the important element was really the instructor and that the failure of course content or its impracticability but reflected the lack of experience or inability of the instructor.

(3) Too much emphasis is placed upon courses like history of education and methods of research and not enough upon requiring courses in guidance, counseling, remedial teaching, and supervision. Many principals were very emphatic in expressing this criticism. Some typical comments were:

From Texas—Give them less history of education and more courses like psychology of adolescents, mental hygiene, guidance and counseling, and community relations.

From Pennsylvania—Less emphasis on research courses and require courses in supervision and psychology.

It would seem from their many comments that they are convinced that research and, particularly, history of education courses have very limited, if any, value in the practical work of the school. There was not a single comment that even implied the opposite point of view.

(4) Courses in administration are too general in nature, and should be revised to provide education for specific tasks such as scheduling, conducting faculty meetings, supervising janitorial work, etc. The statements of these principals, indicative of the practical aspects of their jobs, included the following things that administrative courses should provide, either as special courses or as parts of courses: cocurricular activities, extracurricular supervision, school records, reports, discipline, school laws, community relations, enrolling pupils, scheduling, faculty meetings, accounts, psychology of leadership, employing, special programs, library, plant operation and maintenance, supervising janitorial work, buildings, purchasing, truancy, psychology of school boards, finance, speech, writing, personnel management, and school publicity. Typical comments were:

From Indiana—Make administration courses more specific. Give more attention to the actual jobs a principal must do, such as making a schedule, employing teachers, overseeing plant operation.

From Massachusetts—Stop theorizing in general administration courses and give something practical like the psychology of school boards or why nothing is ever decided in meetings.

There should be internship for prospective principals or something similar to practice teaching wherein actual work in supervision, observations of principals at work, and the tackling of actual administrative problems could be experienced. This suggested that colleges should provide for "practice administration" giving the opportunity to prospective principals to assist or work with or at least to observe principals of high schools as they face their daily problems and responsibilities. Typical comments were:

From Ohio—More practical experience in supervisory capacity under qualified men and up-to-date methods with instructors skilled in the field.

From Washington—Provide practice administration like practice teaching, a longer in-service training, contacts as counselor or assistant principal.

From Oregon—Internship so that they may observe principals in action.

(6) Colleges neglect the extremely important problem of discipline which determines the success or failure of so many principals. These principals expressed opinions stressing the thought that establishing, maintaining, or handling discipline is one of the most important phases

of the principal's job and that such may well determine his success or failure. College professors, they say, talk about motivation as the answer and that discipline is the problem of the individual teacher, but it remains, in practice, one of the biggest problems of most principals. Typical comments were:

From California—The failures of most principals I have known have been due to their inability to handle discipline.

From New York—The most neglected topic in college is discipline; it is the cause of most failures of teachers and principals.

From Nebraska—College professors skip over or around the problem of discipline.

(7) Some are convinced that preservice education includes too many education courses and too few subject matter, cultural, or inspirational courses. Those mentioning this criticism were definitely in the minority with respect to number, but their expressions were very positive in character. Several comments displayed the extreme conservatism of the college preparatory, "mind-training" school of thought with the academic emphasis of a generation ago. Typical comments were:

From New Jersey—Danger of too little general or cultural education. Most helpful course I ever took was English A, first-year composition course at Harvard.

From Colorado—Teach them to be scholarly gentlemen.

(8) Some believe that colleges cannot educate or should not attempt to educate individuals for the principalship but should confine their efforts in preservice education to preparation for teaching. They point out that good teaching is prerequisite to being a successful principal, that the future of individuals is, at the time of their preservice education, too uncertain to warrant specializing in preprincipalship education. Others expressed the opinion that there was nothing that the colleges could do in the preservice education of individuals to prepare adequately for a successful principalship future, contending that the successful principal was the product of "growing up in service." Two comments were:

From Virginia—After all, there is nothing essential that colleges can do; principals should grow up in service. You can give them some of the mechanics, but they usually are meaningless without this growing up.

From Missouri—Don't do anything. Nothing is worse than a teacher who knows how to do the principal's job better than his own principal and never gets the chance to try his hand.

(9) Some believe that colleges are doing a good job and that no essential change is necessary. Not all of the comments were critical, nor did they all suggest change in essential college courses or procedures. Two comments were:

From Ohio—I think colleges are doing a pretty good job as is.

From Illinois—Colleges are doing all right. I think they are moving in the right direction. If anything, I would suggest they strive to do better some of the things they are attempting.

One individual commented that he was not qualified to answer, saying: "I don't know what colleges are doing, since I took my M. A. in 1928." Generally, the suggestions offered by the principals involved in this study seem to evidence a desire on the part of most of them to be constructively helpful in supplying information and offering suggestions to the end that the preservice education of principals might be more meaningful and more effective.

One high-school principal in Pennsylvania supplemented his reply by the inclusion of a rather lengthy letter in which he expressed a somewhat different point of view than those already recorded. It speaks for itself and in part is as follows:

In my opinion, the fault of the teachers colleges is not so much the courses that they name in their catalogue as the content of these courses. That resolves itself to the basic fact of all education—teachers. Teachers colleges, in general, have been and are the poor relations in the educational world. Engineering, agricultural, medical colleges, and a host of others have to have equipment, but a teachers' college can get along on a vacant room, an underpaid faculty, and anyone as a student. In spite of this, the teachers colleges are furnishing us with as good teachers as we get from the better equipped, better staffed liberal arts colleges. I believe that with an even break they can and will do a fine job.

A NEW "WHO'S WHO"

Until recently there was no one source to which one could turn for information concerning individuals associated with the United Nations organization. Now a new publication entitled, *Who's Who in the United Nations*, is available. It contains 1,760 approved biographies of the key persons in the United Nations; almost 800 photographs of these individuals; a list of 350 officers and addresses of the non-official associations for the UN all over the world; and information about the 60 nations that are members of the UN. This clothbound book of 592 pages (6"x9") will be a real source for information to teachers of government and history, librarians, the informed person, and many others. Mr. Ben Cohen, UN's assistant secretary-general for public information, in commenting on the book describes it as: "Very worth-while and much needed." *Who's Who in the United Nations* is the only book of its kind in the world. It is the result of careful, intensive research on the part of a large staff working over a long period of time. It is published by Christian E. Burckel and Associates, 33 and 35 Washington Street, Yonkers 2, New York. It is available from the publisher at \$12.00 per copy. This is a book that should be in every high-school and college library.

Administrative Internship-

A Housemaster Plan

ROBERT G. ANDREE

THE choice of administrative assistants in secondary education, when many able men are leaving for lucrative positions elsewhere, is a problem faced by a large segment of America's principals. In the smaller schools the problem of picking able and promising administrators is as urgent as in the larger systems where seniority sometimes takes precedent over merit. There are at least three problems facing some of the writer's colleagues as relates to the choice of assistants, and no doubt they affect many other principals as well:

1. The choice of picking an administrative assistant is often limited to one or two who have been with the system a reasonably long time but for whom there has been little opportunity to serve, except on an occasional faculty committee or in some minor organizational capacity. As one man expressed it: "I am stuck with approving the choice of a person who is the salt of the earth but who may or may not work out well. Yet once the choice is made there is no retreat."

2. The relationships between a principal and his assistants are essentially team relationships. A young, alert, recently trained, imported principal who inherits administrative assistants who were disregarded or by-passed in the appointment to the vacant post he now occupies is at a tremendous disadvantage. He may be eager to create the necessary team, only to find that years must elapse before administrative assistantships can be filled anew. What plan will bring staff members into a real working relationship with the principal?

3. Young people (25-30) ought really be given an opportunity to share actively in administration. What incentives ought to be established for young administratively minded teachers that will encourage them to stay with teaching?

A HOUSEMASTER PLAN

One plan to answer many phases of the questions raised above is that of the appointment of housemasters. Basically, a housemaster is an administrative assistant appointed from the staff for a four-year term

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on the basis of merit, who has indicated desires to share in certain definite administrative duties that are specifically outlined below. The position differs from such staff jobs as are labelled "class counselors," deans, and other similarly conceived job categories. A housemaster has complete administrative control of a sizable segment of the student body and a corresponding group of home-room teachers (in this case, 14-16). If one studies his duties and recognizes that he is almost completely autonomous and may plan the administration of his house as he sees fit, the administrative training possibilities of this plan become apparent.

A housemaster is appointed for the length of time that a majority of his pupils are in school. In some areas this will be for a three-year period, in others four. If, during that time he has shown qualities of leadership, there may be new positions for him in his own system or in others where his talents can be used. In the situation described here, with four such assistants (men or women) there is no need for a vice-principal in a school of 2000. Each housemaster is permitted to teach one or two classes per day in order to keep in touch with the classroom, to which he returns after the four-year stint. For the extra effort involved and the incentive to try one's hand at such an administrative experience, the annual additional salary for the four years is graduated from \$400 to \$700, one hundred dollars additional granted each year.

Housemasters, by the nature of their duties, have peak daily loads; hence, in order to care for the business at hand efficiently and well, an assistant is assigned one period daily, at a time designated by the housemaster. The "team aspect" of such an appointment weighs heavily in the selection.

PERSONAL QUALITIES OF A HOUSEMASTER

The housemaster must, first of all, be an excellent teacher, having the confidence of the pupils and his colleagues. Starting with anything less than this contributes to the failure of the plan and of the individual attempting these new duties. Some of the demands of the job as outlined below demand "presence"; others, talents in good speaking, abilities in dealing wisely with adults, and a keen interest in school affairs far removed from the classroom. Many of these qualities must be developed slowly and are most capable of careful nurture in the organization described in this article.

Housemasters must like young people and must be dedicated to a program of education that meets their needs. Though housemasters are not responsible for curriculum development, it is surprising how often

their suggestions, as discovered in their relations with youth, lead to wise change. When considering a male appointment, I try to find a family man; for women, I do the same, although often an unmarried woman with a desirable family pattern or several amiable nieces and nephews has the requisite qualities.

Housemasters must become paragons of tact. A sixty-four dollar question to them at the close of their first year is this one: "What surprised you most in your first year?" The answer invariably is, "My colleagues." Bringing excellent personalities out just a bit from the shadow of the classroom changes many points of view regarding fellow staff members. Some housemasters rise to the challenge of this new view, while others are scared by it and are quite willing to return to the classroom after their "tour of duty."

There are also personal ambitions and points of view involved in the basic considerations of the housemastership that must be recognized by those appointed to this office. Four phases of the problem are listed below:

1. Certain administrative tasks not readily accomplished by the principal must be done well daily.
2. Housemasters must serve as a "referral" area when problems are discovered by the principal.
3. Housemasters must serve as a source of information regarding problems which involve the general welfare of the school.
4. The housemastership must serve as a testing laboratory where (a) one can grow administratively, and (b) teachers returning to the classroom will have gained a more comprehensive understanding of the total high-school pupil-teacher-administrator relationships.

Given the right educational atmosphere, there are many persons on any secondary-school staff who are willing to meet new professional challenges in their work.

THE DUTIES OF THE HOUSEMASTER

For convenience, duties of the housemaster and assistant are divided into three large categories, (1) those duties for which the housemaster is personally responsible; (2) those duties in which he is co-operatively responsible with his assistant; and (3) those duties which are the responsibility of the assistant alone.

I. Activities for Which the Housemaster Is Personally Responsible

A. Program

1. The detailed program of each pupil is planned co-operatively with the pupil and the home. Records for the four or five years are kept. The class schedule for each pupil is developed for each year.
2. Housemasters plan the preliminary and final elective cards for their houses.

3. Housemasters make recommendations for the revision of the annual guidance bulletin.

4. Routine changes in programs are under their complete control; i.e. students who desire to work in the lunchroom and students whose section in a given subject is changed for any number of reasons, such as scholarship, class size, discipline, change in the status of the class, students adding or dropping gym at the request of the instructor or family physician.

5. Senior housemasters attend meetings with deans of admission from various colleges.

6. The senior housemaster schedules the assignment of letters of recommendations to be written by teachers.

7. Housemasters organize and direct election procedures for their house.

8. Housemasters maintain a detailed anecdotal folder on all pupils in their house.

9. All marks (except those recorded on permanent record cards) are handled through the housemaster's office.

10. Housemasters enroll new students.

11. Housemasters prepare recommendations for the few who transfer to independent schools.

B. School Personnel

1. Parents' Nights are planned for each year.

2. The housemaster meets home-room teachers for planning the conduct of home-room activities; he supervises such activities.

3. The housemaster keeps informed concerning the work of all committees of teachers and pupils working within the house.

C. Pupils

1. Discipline involving attendance and conduct outside the classroom is referred to the housemaster.

2. Pupil illness is investigated with the aid of the school nurse and physician.

3. Teachers report to the housemaster concerning the class failure of any pupils in the house. He is responsible for the necessary follow-up and recommendations for remedial action.

4. Constant and cumulative check must be kept of student points for graduation.

II. Activities for Which the Housemaster and Assistant are Co-operatively Responsible

1. Guidance—they will refer to and work with the counselors, sharing data and other relevant materials which will contribute to the proper desired adjustment of the student.

2. Planning for social affairs is a co-operative experience with the homeroom teachers and pupils. The assistant serves as chairman of the committee.

3. Discipline originating in the classroom is first referred to the department head; thence it is handled co-operatively with the housemaster if such action is necessary.

4. Attendance of pupils either to school or to individual classes is checked co-operatively by the housemaster and his assistant.

5. Group meetings are held with the principal twice each month.

6. Housemasters and assistants serve on various school and Town committees.

7. Home visits are made when necessary.

8. Activity records are checked and resulting conferences are conducted in order to help students plan and participate in a well-rounded program of school activities other than those arising from classroom needs.

9. The complete plan and organization of graduation week activities are the responsibility of the housemaster and assistant.

10. The housemaster and assistant plan and organize the test schedules so that the guidance counselors will not upset the pupil class schedule.

11. Brookline has a pupil drop-out ratio of less than 2 per cent. The efforts of the housemaster and assistant contribute greatly to this effort.

III. Activities for Which the Assistant Is Personally Responsible

1. Registers—all registers must be checked once each month to insure the accuracy of the pupil attendance report for the state.

2. Committees on social activities for the house are supervised by the assistant.

3. Auditorium seating—plans are developed by the assistant.

4. The assistant is responsible for making himself available for any of the duties of the housemaster when such duties need immediate attention and cannot be cared for by the housemaster.

ADVANTAGES TO A SCHOOL SYSTEM

The advantages of the housemaster plan to a principal, new or old to a particular situation, are tremendous. If the opportunity presents itself to fill the administrative post of vice-principal, the principal can immediately surround himself with three or four promising staff members capable of working co-operatively toward a common goal. The incentive for younger staff members to work hard toward consideration at the time of the annual appointment of a new housemaster is a good one; such as are added to the staff from time to time need not have to wait twenty years for consideration.

The free hand given to appointees for the development of the activities of their group is excellent. Home-room teachers see routine activities, dance and party plans, council activities, and a host of related efforts attacked with new ideas and renewed efforts. And when a housemaster, having viewed the aspects of administration and working closely with the principal and his other advisory groups, returns to the classroom, he is a better teacher for having had this experience.

The ability of a school system to test its personnel before actual appointments to principalships, supervisory positions, or department headships need be made is much in its favor. The prestige of such a system is greatly increased when it can serve as a source of supply

for adequately trained young administrators to other systems in the area.

Finally, a school system is measured at times by the morale of its teachers and its ability to attract promising younger members. When one can hold out to candidates the opportunity for relatively early administrative experiences, some teachers change positions who would not otherwise do so.

ADVANTAGES TO THE INDIVIDUAL

Some factors emphasizing the advantages accruing to staff members who accept housemaster responsibilities have already been mentioned. There remains, however, the necessity to enlarge on two items:

1. Staff members who are serious in their attempt to prepare adequately for an administrative post can combine their first steps in practical training with continuing experiences in university course work or summer workshops to great personal advantage, with scarcely any risk of loss of prestige if the venture doesn't "jell." The natural step in the plan is to *return* to the classroom. Should a staff member desire this, the return is according to plan. If he desires, rather, to seek additional administrative experiences, the way is open to find that advancement in whatever opportunities present themselves.

2. Staff members in many high schools are required to work actively on curriculum committees, having in mind their responsibilities for steady improvement of instruction and related activities. This plan allows individuals to gain insight easily that may contribute to the general well being of their school organization. These are advantages not offered to many teachers under existing organizational practice.

SUMMARY

Administrators are often faced with a consideration of staff members to sub-administrative posts without having had the opportunity to measure their potential effectiveness. Where a natural plan is worked out for the trial of teachers with an administrative potential that allows them to return to the classroom if they desire, or seek further administrative experiences elsewhere, both the welfare of the school system and that of the individual are cared for.

A Discussion Group Outline on the

TEN IMPERATIVE NEEDS OF YOUTH *available from*

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Standards in Athletics for Boys in Secondary Schools

A REPORT BY THE JOINT COMMITTEE ON STANDARDS FOR INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETICS FOR BOYS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS*

ATHLETICS are most important and vital in the program of education for youth and adults. Athletics should be used to develop and promote worthwhile educational goals. If athletics are to serve useful ends, they must be wisely guided, thoroughly supported, and wholeheartedly accepted. Participants, parents, and educators must understand the dynamic character of athletics—a force for good, or a force for evil. All who are involved must insist that athletics conducted for school youth shall be organized, developed, and administered as a vital and effective aspect of American culture. The responsibility of the school, its administrator, its staff, and its membership, begins when a boy becomes a member of the school and continues until he has been graduated or has been withdrawn from it. This responsibility involves the boy's way of living, his attitudes toward life, his views of human relationships, and the ways of promoting desirable changes in his be-

*THE JOINT COMMITTEE on Standards for Interscholastic Athletics.

JOHN K. ARCHER, *Chairman*; CARL A. TROESTER, JR., *Secretary*.

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JOHN K. ARCHER, *Principal*, Malverne High School, Malverne, New York; *Secretary*, New York State Public High School Athletic Association.

HOMER L. BERRY, *Principal*, West Side Junior High School, Little Rock, Arkansas.
FRED L. BIESTER, *Superintendent*, Glenbard Township High School, Glen Ellyn, Illinois.

W. B. TRELOAR, *Supervising Principal of Schools*, Daytona Beach, Florida.

MAYO M. MAGOON, *Principal*, Framingham Senior High School, Framingham, Massachusetts.

HARRY J. MOORE, *Director of High Schools*, Long Beach City Schools, Long Beach, California.

havior. *This responsibility rests primarily with the school. It cannot be shirked or taken lightly. Will we as educators—as leaders of youth—assume this obligation and responsibility?*

There are a number of controversies and misunderstandings in the present-day school athletic program that are causing grave concern.

- A. One of these is the purpose of athletics. It involves such questions as, "Are athletics for competition and to develop co-operation?", "Should one play to win and be judged only on such results?", or "Are there other vital educational values?"
- B. Another problem is focused around leadership. To clarify the issues here, there should be standards for the selection of leaders, their preparation, and the procedures in carrying out leadership duties.
- C. A third basic problem is the nature and scope of the administration and supervision of athletics. It involves the sanction of contests, all-star games, bowl games, alumni administrative participation, procurement and use of facilities, financing, athletic schedules, conferences and associations, tournaments, pre-season and post-season games and practices, player and spectator control, recruiting, proselyting, subsidization of players, public relations, girls' athletics, and exploitation.

APPOINTED BY THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR HEALTH, PHYSICAL EDUCATION, AND RECREATION:

P. C. COBB, *Athletic Director*, Dallas Public Schools, Dallas, Texas.

HARVEY DICKINSON, *Director of Health and Physical Education*, Hinsdale High School, Hinsdale, Illinois.

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APPOINTED BY THE NATIONAL FEDERATION OF STATE HIGH SCHOOL ATHLETIC ASSOCIATIONS:

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O. L. WEBB, *Secretary*, Nebraska High School Activities Association, Box 1028, Lincoln 1, Nebraska.

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- D. Another important problem is grouped around the participants. Involved here are considerations and standards of eligibility, parity of competition, traditional rivals, protection of participants, amateurism, and awards.
- E. A fifth problem is concerned with activities. Are the activities selected, organized, and adapted to the needs of the participant?
- F. Finally, there are problems concerned with the values and outcomes, proposed and realized through interscholastic athletics. The need for standards and criteria for determining the worthwhileness of our interscholastic athletic programs is evident.

The National Federation of State High-School Athletic Associations; the National Association of Secondary-School Principals; and the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation are co-operating through this Joint Committee to recognize the fine progress that has already been made in the establishment of athletic standards; to indicate the best practices involved therein; and to project standards, their understandings, procedures, and interpretations so that every secondary school may look critically at itself and, as a result, provide an effective educational athletic program for boys in the school.

Basic to any consideration of acceptable standards in interscholastic athletics for secondary schools is this statement of the *guiding policies* for the organization, administration, and the development of a program of athletics for the youth of our schools:

GUIDING POLICIES

1. Athletics are to be an integral part of the secondary-school program and should receive financial support from tax funds on the same basis as other recognized parts of the total educational program. As a part of the curriculum, high-school sports are to be conducted by secondary-school authorities and all instruction provided by competent, qualified, and accredited teachers so that desirable definite educational aims may be achieved.
2. Athletics are for the benefit of all youth. The aim is maximum participation—a sport for every boy and every girl in a sport—in a well-balanced intramural and interscholastic program with emphasis on safe and healthful standards of competition.
3. Athletics are to be conducted under rules which provide for equitable competition, sportsmanship, fair play, health, and safety. High-school sports are for amateurs who are *bona fide* undergraduate high-school students. These youth must be protected from exploitation and the dangers of professionalism.

Pre-season, post-schedule, post-season, all-star games, or similar types of promotions are not consistent with this principle. It is necessary to develop a full understanding of the need for observance of local, league, sectional, state, and national standards in athletics.

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE ON
STANDARDS IN ATHLETICS FOR BOYS

For the purpose of promoting and stimulating safe and healthful participation among a high percentage of secondary-school boys in a wide variety of wholesome athletic activities and after careful study of the problems which have been created by certain types of interscholastic contests (including meets, tournaments, national championships, contests which require distant travel, contests which are sponsored by individuals or organizations other than a high school or group of high schools, and contests between teams of high-school all-stars), the Joint Committee makes the following recommendations. The Joint Committee urges that all of the organizations represented adopt these *major interpretations* and place them in the form of policies, standards, or regulations in accordance with the established practice of each organization:

1. The program of athletics should be developed with due regard for the following standards of health and safety standards.
 - a. A health examination should be required previous to participation, preferably on a seasonal basis with annual examination a minimum.
 - b. A physician should be present at all contests involving activities where the injury hazard is pronounced.
 - c. A contestant who has been ill or injured should be readmitted to participation only on the written recommendation of a physician.
 - d. A contestant upon returning to participation after illness or injury should be carefully observed and, if there is any doubt as to his condition, he should immediately be referred to a physician.
 - e. The coach (faculty member in charge) should be competent in first aid and thoroughly versed in sports conditioning and training. It is also strongly recommended that all players be given basic instruction in first aid.
 - f. In case of head, neck, or spine injury or suspicion thereof, the player should be removed from play, placed at rest, and be given the immediate attention of a physician.

- g. Every school should have a written policy regarding the responsibility for injury incurred in athletics, and this policy should be known to all participants, their parents, and other responsible adults. Arrangements should be made for obtaining and paying for medical and hospital care of injured participants, in accord with local policy.
 - h. The best obtainable protective equipment should be provided for all participants, and special attention should be given to proper fitting of such equipment.
 - i. Competition should take place only between teams of comparable ability, and playing seasons should be limited to reasonable duration.
 - j. No pre-season games should be played until players are well drilled in fundamentals and have had a minimum of two weeks of physical conditioning.
 - k. Playfields should meet standard requirements for size of area, playing surfaces, and facilities for safety, and all reasonable precautions should be taken to prevent accidents.
 - l. Contests should be selected, and rules and lengths of playing periods should be such that they will not overtax the physical abilities of high-school students.
2. Good citizenship must result from all coaching and from all inter-school competition. The education of the youth of the nation fails unless it creates the proper ideals and attitudes, both in the game and off the field.
- a. The contribution of athletics to citizenship—indeed to life itself—will be judged according to the contribution they make to fine living.
 - b. Athletics should contribute a feeling, on the part of the athlete, of personal worth, excellence in performance, self-respect, and desirable personal and social growth and development.
 - c. Educationally, winning is not the only important item. While the will to win within the rules of good sportsmanship is an important attribute to good citizenship, there is always a tendency to overdo the importance of winning in athletics. Other important contributions are those desirable changes made in skills, habits, and attitudes of the participants.
 - d. Athletics are responsible jointly with education for establishing among boys and girls those standards of behavior that represent the best in good citizenship. Athletics must contribute to those virtues which are socially sound for a democracy,

such as truthfulness, fair play, honesty, modesty, give-and-take, courtesy, self-discipline, courage, generosity, self-restraint, and loyalty to team, state, and nation.

3. The ten "Cardinal Athletic Principles"¹ are accepted as expressing the policies of our organizations, and it is urged that these be displayed in the literature of our organizations.

To be of maximum effectiveness, the athletic program will:

- a. Be closely co-ordinated with the general instructional program and properly articulated with the other departments of the school.
- b. Be such that the number of students accommodated and the educational aims achieved justify the use of tax funds for its support and also warrant the use of other sources of income.
- c. Justify the time and attention which is given to the collection of "other sources of income" which will not interfere with the efficiency of the athletic program or of any other departments of the school.
- d. Confine the school athletic activity to events which are sponsored and supervised by the proper school authorities so that any exploitation or improper use of prestige built up by school teams or members of such teams may be avoided.
- e. Be planned in such a way as to result in opportunity for many individuals to explore a wide variety of sports and to set reasonable season limits for each listed sport.
- f. Be controlled in such a way as to avoid the elements of professionalism and commercialism which tend to grow up in connection with widely publicized "bowl" contests, barnstorming trips, and interstate or intersectional contests which require excessive travel expense or loss of school time or which are claimed to be justified by educational travel values.
- g. Be kept free from the type of contest which involves a gathering of so-called "all-stars" from different schools to participate in contests which may be used as a gathering place for representatives of certain colleges or professional organizations who are interested in soliciting athletic talent for their teams.
- h. Include educative exercises to reach all nonparticipating students and community followers of the school teams in order

¹ American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, National Education Association. "Cardinal Athletic Principles," *Journal of Health and Physical Education*. September, 1947, page 7; also available in reprints from the Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.; 5 cents per reprint.

to insure a proper understanding and appreciation of the sports skills and of the need for adherence to principles of game ethics.

- i. Encourage a balanced program of intramural activity in grades below the ninth to make it unnecessary to sponsor contests of a championship nature in these grades.
 - j. Engender respect for the rules and policies under which the school conducts its program.
4. All schools shall use reasonable care in avoiding any participation in a contact sport between participants of normal high-school age and participants who are appreciably above or below normal high-school age.

Senior high-school competition should be limited to participation in games, meets, and tournaments between participants enrolled in grades 9 through 12. Junior high-school competition should be limited to participation in games, meets, and tournaments between participants enrolled in grades 7 through 9. These games, meets, and tournaments should be approved and conducted by appropriate secondary-school authorities.

- a. All school personnel should utilize *every precaution* and *procedure* to assure competition in secondary-school athletics on the basis of comparable parity.
- b. A significant phase in the growth of a living organism is maturity. Wide differences in the maturity places in jeopardy the well being of athletic competitors. School personnel should permit competition between teams composed of comparable maturity.
- c. Certain stages of maturity can be distinguished and should be utilized as one of the bases for determining parity in athletic competition.
- d. Outstanding features of adolescence are insecurity, awkwardness, and excessive competitiveness. One can adjust himself to these factors of environment only by becoming more mature, wiser, and more self-reliant. These are additional evidences that parents and school personnel should use protective procedures in setting up competition between individuals and groups of pre-adolescent and adolescent age.
- e. A high-school pupil or team should not compete with members of a college or university, a preparatory school, or other schools which include postgraduates on their teams, or against any independent team sponsored by an "outside" organization.

- f. A junior high-school pupil or team should not compete with members of a team representing a senior high school, elementary school, or an "outside" organization. This would not, however, exclude the participation of ninth-grade pupils as members of a senior high-school team if the ninth grade was under the administrative direction of the high-school principal and if the other conditions stated above are met.
- g. Appropriate secondary-school authorities consist of all legally certificated teaching, supervisory, and administrative personnel directly under the superintendent of schools. These personnel should see that the items noted above are observed.
5. All schools shall fully observe and abide by the spirit and letter of established eligibility requirements which have been democratically developed by each of the state athletic associations.
6. Each state athletic association should attempt to secure the co-operation which would provide a plan of continuous eligibility from high schools to college.
7. For competition in which only one state is involved, no school shall participate in a meet or tournament involving more than two schools unless such contest has been approved by its state high-school association or its delegated constituent or allied divisions.
8. The use of school facilities or members of the school staff shall not be permitted in connection with any post-season or all-star contest unless such contest has been sanctioned by the state athletic association.
9. A school shall not permit any employee or official to encourage or collaborate in any negotiations which may lead a high-school athlete to lose his eligibility through the signing of a professional contract.
10. The solicitation of athletes through tryouts and competitive bidding by colleges and universities is unethical, unprofessional, and psychologically harmful. It destroys the amateur nature of athletics, tends to commercialize the individual and the program, promotes the use of athletic skill for gain, and takes an unfair and unjust advantage of competitors.
11. In all interstate athletic contests, each athlete shall compete under eligibility rules which are at least as restrictive as those adopted by the state high-school athletic association of his state, except in the case of non-member schools which are not eligible for membership in their state associations.
12. No school shall compete in any of the following contests unless such contest has been sanctioned by each of the interested state

- high-school athletic associations through the National Federation: (a) any interstate tournament or meet in which three or more schools participate; (b) any interstate two-school contest which involves a round trip exceeding 600 miles; (c) any interstate two-school contest (regardless of the distance to be traveled) which is sponsored by an individual or an organization other than a member high school.
13. No basketball tournament which is purported to be for interstate high-school championship shall be sanctioned, and no basketball tournament involving schools of more than one state shall be sanctioned unless the tournament is purely community in character.
 14. No contest which is purported to be for a national high-school championship in any sport shall be sanctioned.

DRAFT PROBLEMS

Draft-eligible college students who have taken and passed the Selective Service System aptitude tests, should take care to be alert to channels of appeal which are available to them in order to offset possible "discriminatory" classifications.

The American Council on Education has received many complaints showing that college students are being classified "I-A" by some local boards regardless of their scores in the aptitude tests, or their scholastic standings.

Such "arbitrary action should not be tolerated," according to Brig. Gen. L. B. Hershey, SS chief. Selective Service, however, is doing and can do nothing about the situation. It is reluctant to disturb the authority of local boards. Also, the composition of the local boards is determined at the state and local level, and the national office cannot demand adherence to its recommendations on threat of removal. Even if it could, the average draft board official would be happy to quit to avoid his unpleasant duty.

The only solution offered by Gen. Renfrow is the regularly established appeal channels: the appeal board, and the state or national director for reference to the Presidential Board. — *The Education Digest*.

BRITAIN'S SCHOOL BROADCASTS

About 54 per cent of all British schools are now registered with the Schools Broadcasting Council, which is composed of members from the Ministry of Education, local education authorities, various teachers' associations, and a limited number of specially qualified BBC staff members approved by the Council. These schools receive an advance program for the year's broadcasts as well as a schedule each term for display on the school bulletin board. They can also obtain the illustrated pamphlets for class study before each broadcast. School broadcasting began in 1924 with a one-hour weekly broadcast. A wide variety is now offered including current affairs, science, music, history, geography, languages, vocational guidance, a rural series, religion, and philosophy. Use of television in schools is now being explored and a receiver for projecting pictures on a school screen has been developed. — *The Education Digest*.

Instructional Leadership and the Perceptions of the Individuals Involved

STEPHEN M. COREY
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FOR the past two years the secondary-school principals and building co-ordinators of Denver, Colorado, have been associated with the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation in a series of studies undertaken to improve the quality of educational leadership.¹ In the course of these studies, we have become convinced that our success as instructional leaders depends to a large extent upon our ability to understand the way the people with whom we work view themselves and the situations with which they must cope. Even more important than this "understanding," of course, is what we actually do in light of it. This article is our attempt to state and elaborate some generalizations about certain aspects of human behavior which help explain what we do, how and why we change, and the effect we have upon one another. Most of our illustrations relate primarily to relations between teachers and administrators. The point of view expressed, however, would be equally applicable to all staff members, and to teachers working with youth. The generalizations we develop are interrelated. They are supported, we believe, not only by our experience in Denver and elsewhere, but also by much of the recent professional literature on social psychology, personality development, and group dynamics.²

¹ See Mackenzie, Gordon N., and Corey, Stephen M., "A Conception of Educational Leadership" (to be published) for a description of the nature of leadership as developed in the Denver project.

² See Snygg, Donald, and Combs, A. W., *Individual Behavior*. New York: Harper and Bros., 1949.

Benne, Kenneth D., and Muntyan, Bozidar, *Human Relations in Curriculum Change*. Springfield, Illinois: State Department of Public Instruction, 1949.

Rogers, Carl, *Client Centered Counseling*. New York: Houghton Mifflin, 1951.

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PROPOSITION I—*Most of our behavior, particularly as it involved relations with others, can be explained as our attempt to preserve our integrity, our self-respect—to maintain or build our self-esteem.*

Almost everything we do has some direct bearing on our feeling of personal worth. It is natural that each of us is primarily concerned with his self-esteem. Different people, of course, base self-esteem on different things. One person may consider himself most worthy when he is being exceedingly considerate of others. Another may build his self-esteem by being frankly and objectively critical of others. Each of these persons, however, does what he does because doing so makes him feel worthy—builds his self-respect. Many of us place a value upon the consistency of our past and present behavior. When attention is called to the fact that we have been inconsistent, we tend to interpret this as a destructive criticism. We do not want to consider ourselves, or to be considered by others, as being vacillating or undependable or contradictory.

Recognizing that all of us want to be considered both by ourselves and others as worthy, important, and deserving of respect helps us understand not only our own behavior, but also that of the teachers with whom we work. We have found, for example, that a teacher's behavior, which at first seemed to be sheer obstructionism, takes on quite a different meaning if we take into account the importance to the teacher of building and maintaining his self-esteem. No one can be expected to co-operate in actions that violate his perception of his own worth and dignity. Altogether apart from the status leader's interpretation of what is happening, the teacher either may not see himself as refusing to co-operate, or he may view the refusal as necessary if he is to maintain his self-respect. He may think of a supervisor, for example, as a dominating, unreasonable person, and refuse to do what is suggested to show that he will not be pushed around. He thinks of himself as a person who resists coercion and he is proud of the fact.

Similarly, a supervisor who realizes that a secondary-school teacher of mathematics views himself as most successful and worthy when he prepares boys and girls for success in college mathematics is in a better position to work with that teacher. In the degree that the teacher values this role, he will resist suggestions for program modification that threaten the college preparatory function. But if this mathematics teacher were to understand that his supervisor's self-esteem depends largely upon doing what the principal or superintendent of schools wants him to do, the teacher would be in a position to work with the supervisor. He would be able to take into account one of the important realities.

One of the reasons for much of the difficulty between teachers and status leaders is that neither knows much about the conditions that contribute to the self-enhancement of the other. Each of us engages in activities that build and maintain our self-esteem, and resists or avoids activities that have the opposite effect. To work successfully together, we must know at least something about the kinds of situations and activities which contribute to the feelings of worth of our associates. This does not necessarily mean that we share all the values of the other person, but to the degree that they are mutually recognized, communication and teaching-learning interactions become more effective.

PROPOSITION II—*At the time of our action, our behavior is determined by our private, personal perception of the situation and its requirements.*

To say that what we do depends upon our private perception of the situation may seem to labor the obvious. The fact remains, however, that conflict between a teacher and a status leader often occurs because of substantial differences between the meaning a given situation has for each of these people and the expectations each has regarding what should be done. This is illustrated by the case of a young science teacher who took two classes to a plant that manufactures commercial yeast. The pupils enjoyed the excursion, but they got out of hand. At one point a number of them threw handfuls of yeast at one another. The teacher was seriously embarrassed and filled with doubt about his ability to control a class on an excursion. The word "excursion," to him, evoked this humiliating experience, although no adult in the school heard about it. Another semester came, and the principal, noticing that the teacher planned no excursions, suggested that the class visit a nearby large bakery, this being appropriate to the class study of foods. But the teacher—an "excursion" meaning what it did to him—visualizing the chaos that might result from putting pupils near vats of rising bread dough, offered a number of objections, which the principal thought "unreasonable" and argued against.

This reaction did nothing to improve the situation. In order to be helpful, the principal would have had to recognize that the objections which were "unrealistic" to him, and probably to others, made sense to the teacher voicing them because of the meaning of the total situation to him. The teacher did not discuss his view frankly with the principal because of the implication that he could not "handle" his class. Admitting this would have further threatened his self-esteem. It was, of course, natural for the principal to accept the usual interpretation of the teacher's objections, and to label him as "tied to books." Doing so caused him to miss both the private, total meaning of "excursion"

to the teacher as well as an opportunity to be helpful by extending the teacher's perceptions of the total situation so as to bring about a more realistic view.

The privacy of perceptions, and the relation of behavior to these private perceptions, indicates the importance of trying to see the world through the eyes of others if communication and personal relations in general are to be improved. We have found that this requires effort and practice. One advantage in the preliminary practice of anticipated and important inter-personal relations situations, often called "role-playing," is that it can provide an opportunity for the development of increased skill in understanding the perceptions and points of view of other people.

There is danger in assuming that the same words spoken to different persons mean the same things. For example: a curriculum worker met two teachers in the corridor and said to both simultaneously, "I would like to be of help, if I can, in connection with those arithmetic units you are working on." One of the teachers said to herself, "She's being thoughtful and wants me to know she's interested in my work and would like to help." The suggestion meant something quite different to the other teacher, whose unspoken reaction was, "What has she heard about my arithmetic units? I think they're good. She should wait until her help is requested."

Because each of these two teachers heard different meanings, their reactions were different. The fact that the curriculum co-ordinator meant to be friendly and co-operative is important, the teachers didn't act on the supervisor's intent. They acted on their personal perception of her intent. These personal meanings are private. Often, as in the case of the "excursion" illustration, the personal meaning of a situation is not brought into the open because of conventions or fear of reprisal.

PROPOSITION III—*At the time we act, we do what seems justified to us according to our view of the situation.*

Even if the truth of this proposition is granted, it is difficult to accept and internalize. Looking back, we all recognize that we have done many foolish things and it is embarrassing to admit that at the time we did what we thought was right and justified. Hence, in retrospect, we often say that we realized at the time that we were making a mistake. ("I *knew* I shouldn't have done it!") In all probability, what we mean when we say this is either (a) that we realized that other people saw the situation differently, and hence would be critical of us, or (b) that, on second thought, maybe only a moment later, our perception of the situation changed and this change implied different behavior.

So far as the relationships between teachers and status leaders are concerned, Proposition III, if accepted, reduces the likelihood that "the other person" will be suspected of deliberately doing something he realizes he should not do. We have found that this suspicion leads to blame, threat, and punishment, which may make co-operative work impossible. What is implied again is the need for sitting in the other person's place. A high-school teacher, in faculty meetings, sulked and used other non-verbal devices—facial expression, position of his body, side glances, shuffling his feet—to express his unhappiness at having to attend staff meetings. His continued sulking—with other similar activities—led in due course to his being punished by the principal. His schedule was made with less regard to his convenience, he taught in the less desirable classrooms, and his requests for clerical help and mimeographing were denied or overlooked. No one tried to see things through his eyes. As he perceived the situation, the meetings were a dull waste of time, and his real abilities, which lay in the field of dramatics, were ignored. He disliked one member of the staff, who, in his opinion, talked too much about too little. His dislike for the principal was compounded by the schedules, as well as by his teaching and room assignments. He felt caught in a hopeless situation, from which there was, so far as he could see, no appeal. His only recourse was tacit rebellion in faculty meetings. To him, this "sulking" was justified and he continued it, although it cost him the respect of the other members of the faculty, who did not see the meetings as he did.

PROPOSITION IV—*People behave differently because their perceptions of the situations to which they react differ.*

The teacher who sees the curriculum co-ordinator or principal as being primarily one who evaluates him and notes his strengths and weaknesses will act differently from the teacher who sees the principal or co-ordinator as a person who is anxious to help him and give him support. Each of these two teachers, while reacting to what may be objectively the "same" status leader, perceives him very much differently.

The way an individual perceives—that is, sizes up and interprets a situation in which he is involved—determines his actions. We think that there are, among others, these three important determinants of this "situation perception":

1. *The individual's background of experience.* A teacher might behave inappropriately—that is, in a way which, to a person with more adequate experience might seem likely to lead to undesirable results—as he begins teacher-pupil planning. The reason for the inappropriateness may well be that the teacher's own experience with this kind of planning is limited. He is unable to single out from the over-all situation those aspects which

require separate attention. Thus, he may accept as desirable the participation of students in planning without realizing that some of the students will not take part willingly. No matter how clear and rational the teacher's ideas may "sound"—to others or to him—his failure to anticipate this refusal indicates an inadequate perception of the total situation. In this case, a failure to recognize an important aspect of teacher-pupil planning probably reflects an insufficient background of experience.

2. *Presence or absence of emotional blocks.* Emotional feelings resulting from threatening situations result in distorted perceptions and restrict seriously anyone's ability to take into account the factors that are relevant to adequate behavior. The teacher who sees the status leader visiting his class as one who is there to "rate" his teaching may be so upset by this perception that he will be harsh with the pupils, in spite of the fact that such behavior is not his habit. And, of course, the "visitor" may be entirely unaware of this threat and its effect.

Some curriculum workers and administrators imply that a degree of insecurity and threat is necessary for behavior change. We believe that this is questionable. Threat makes the individual do things to eliminate the threat, but it does not necessarily cause him to do whatever the threatening person would want him to do. The basic reactions to threat are defense or retreat. A disposition to try out new practices and materials is associated with dissatisfaction with things as they are, but security is essential if there is to be any significant experimentation.

3. *The time required to organize and differentiate before action is necessary.* Behavior is frequently inadequate because the individual has not had sufficient time (a) to build up a background of experience or (b) to select from this background of experience those aspects which should be primarily determinative of what he does. We all meet this situation many times and are apt to say, "I just didn't have time to realize...."

We have found that our expectations regarding teachers are frequently unrealistic, because of failure to consider the time factor. Learning that involves major attitudinal and skill changes is complex, and takes a great deal of time. The time required differs, of course, among individuals. Widespread curricular revisions are often developed by small committees taking plenty of time to develop a background of pertinent experience and to think problems through. But when the revisions are reported, teachers are expected to understand and to act upon them almost immediately. We believe that this method of trying to bring about curriculum improvement almost invariably results in serious difficulties.

PROPOSITION V—Changed perceptions lead to changed behavior.

We have in mind here the perception of the entire situation, which includes the way the individual sees himself, his role and needs, as well as those aspects of the situation which are, in a sense, outside himself. For example, a social studies teacher might do things that would encourage his pupils, who lived in a dairying community, to speak out for more widespread use of colored margarine. This teacher's perception of the situation would be concentrated on what he believed to be an objective body of evidence indicating that so far as vitamins,

nourishment, taste, and appearance are concerned, it is impossible to distinguish between colored margarine and butter, and the former is much cheaper.

If there were violent community repercussions from this social studies unit, the teacher might modify considerably the range of perceptions which had at first added up to the "nourishment-appearance-price" situation. Later, because his experience had changed his view of the factors involved and his own role, the teacher would behave differently when his pupils were considering the oleomargarine-butter controversy. He would add to the "nourishment-appearance-price" perception another that might be designated "butter-margarine-community reactions." His different behavior need not imply a surrender. It would, rather, be more effective because it would be based upon perception of a larger group of factors relevant to the situation.

The implication of this proposition, so far as the relationship between instructional leaders and teachers is concerned, seems clear. If the curriculum worker believes that a teacher should act differently in a certain type of teaching situation, he should do whatever he can to enable the teacher to extend and clarify and differentiate among his perceptions of that situation. Sometimes this can be facilitated by talk which may help the teacher recognize and separate out of his past experiences certain elements which he realizes he has not attended to sufficiently. Whether or not this happens depends largely upon the extent to which the talk is interpreted by the teacher as threatening. There are other methods, of course, of extending perceptions. Reading is one. Another is to make it possible for teachers to experiment or otherwise to have additional firsthand experience. The teacher who spends a summer working with people of low socio-economic status and who intellectualizes and internalizes his experience will extend and broaden his perception of the factors involved in lower-class behavior.

Working with teachers in such a way as to make available opportunities for them to extend and clarify their perceptions represents a rather uncommon method for bringing about curricular improvement. A more conventional practice is for someone to tell teachers or other school personnel what they are doing that is wrong, or right, then urge or admonish or direct them to cease the former and continue the latter. We have little faith in this procedure for improving schools, despite its persistence.

PROPOSITION VI—We feel satisfaction when we realize that our perceptions and our consequent behavior are considered correct and right by other members of the group or groups to which we want to belong.

This proposition needs little illustration. Mechanics generally take some pride in the fact that they perceive and react to situations as do other mechanics. Most school teachers who want to be considered school teachers similarly get satisfaction when they know that their perceptions correspond with those of their professional associates. This is another way of describing the satisfaction that everyone gets from belonging to a group. This "belonging" is based in large measure upon similarity of perceptions. We believe that our view of a situation is "realistic" and correct if it corresponds to the way those of our peers and associates whom we admire regard the same situations.

This proposition does not imply that much is accomplished if one person merely tells another person that he is not "seeing things straight"—as other "qualified" people do. Nor is much accomplished if one person exhorts another to "be realistic." The clearest implication to us, and one that bears directly upon curriculum improvement, has to do with the importance of group work. When a number of school people work together to identify problems, to create more promising ways of dealing with these problems, to put these practices into effect, and to evaluate the consequences, the perceptions of all members of the group tend to come into closer and closer correspondence. And the expectations of the group exercise a strong influence upon the behavior of each member of the group.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, we wish to emphasize one practical inference from all of these propositions which has much to do with the quality of the relations between principals, curriculum co-ordinators, and teachers. The inference we have in mind is this: Effective work depends largely upon the willingness and ability of the people involved to find out how the situation looks to the other person. For example, we believe that any instructional leader's behavior will be more effective when he realizes that he would do the same thing a particular teacher does if he perceived the situation as the teacher does. We frequently say of another person, "He should have known better." What we mean is that he would have known better had he acted upon the basis of *our* perceptions or the perceptions of people who, in our judgment, do know better. The teacher who does things differently from the way the leader believes he should, does so because he has a different view of what is involved. He does what seems to him to be justified in light of this different view.

We do not know as much as we should like to about ways and means for seeing things through the other person's eyes. We need ex-

perimentation on this problem as it appears in the usual school. We have stated above that role-playing, or anticipatory practice of human relations situations, holds much promise. Our experience also suggests some less novel procedures. In order for an instructional leader to detect the meaning of a situation to a teacher, it is necessary, *first*, to be receptive to whatever the teacher is willing to communicate. If what is said is rejected—and such rejection may take the form of a subtle ignoring of what is said—one way toward developing correspondence of perception is blocked. This is one of the important reasons for maintaining a permissive relationship among professional workers. Enough faith in the other person's good intentions is required to permit him to voice what he thinks—and thus state his perceptions, or offer clues to them.

Second, much expression of perception is indirect. Complaints, praise, and plans are all based on the situation as the speaker sees it. What is praised, or complained about, or planned for, is what the speaker, at the time, is willing to indicate as having significance for him.

Third, much expression is not verbal at all—it shows in bodily movements, facial expression, or pointed silence. Such signs are not easy to interpret, yet all of us project our meanings in this fashion and they are reacted to by others who are often on the alert for contradictions between what we say and "really mean."

Fourth, there are many levels of perception ranging from the surface recognition of what is plainly present in a situation to unconscious reaction to elements unconsciously recognized. Much behavior is symptomatic of such unconscious recognition. When one feels tense during a professional conference without knowing why, or when one sees another person become tense, it is likely that such unconscious recognition of threat is at work. Lacking the psychiatrist's skill, we can only wait, sympathetically, for the person to solve the problem for himself, or to project it in a recognizable form so that it may be attacked co-operatively. The co-operative attack can often be achieved in due time, provided the relationship between the people involved threatens neither.

Evaluative Criteria Results

J. F. BAKER AND G. F. ETZEL

NEW ENGLAND EVALUATION STUDY

THE *Evaluative Criteria* developed by the Cooperative Study of Secondary-School Standards have been used extensively throughout the country in evaluating and improving secondary education. Some information has been made available concerning the opinions of teachers and administrators who have used the *Criteria* regarding the values inherent in the materials and procedures.¹ Expressions of opinions have indicated a very favorable attitude toward the use of this evaluative instrument.

In an attempt to gain objective evidence concerning the changes and improvements resulting from self- and visiting-committee evaluations, the New England School Development Council has recently made a follow-up study of evaluations conducted in six New England secondary schools during the 1949-50 school year. The six schools studied are located in Cape Elizabeth, Maine; Hampton, New Hampshire; Springfield, Vermont; and Abington, Concord, and Marblehead, Massachusetts.

The evaluations were conducted at the request of the local school staffs who had indicated a definite desire to participate in the evaluation studies using both self- and visiting-committee procedures. This interest and willingness to co-operate with such an in-service project lent credence to the idea that the studies might result in very favorable outcomes. It was hoped that this attitude would pave the way for growth and improvement in the schools participating.

EVALUATION PROCEDURES

The self-evaluation procedures were begun in each of the six schools early in the fall of 1949. By the Thanksgiving recess, initial

¹Elicker, Paul E. (ed.). "Evaluating Secondary Education," *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXVI (April, 1942), 5-146.

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reports had been made by the local committees studying the pupil population and school community and ascertaining pupil educational needs which fell within the responsibilities of their school. Upon return from the Thanksgiving recess, other committees were organized in each school to evaluate such areas as the program of studies, pupil activity program, library services, guidance services, school plant, and school staff and administration. These self-evaluation committees reported back to their respective staffs late in January of 1950. After these reports were received, the staff members were organized into subject committees for the evaluation of such subject areas as art, English, home economics, mathematics, science, and the like. The subject committees reported to their respective staffs concerning the results of their self-evaluations by March or April, 1950.

Visiting committees composed mainly of teachers and administrators under the direction of an experienced chairman visited the schools for a three-day period to check the results of the staffs' self-evaluations. The size of the committees varied from nine members visiting a school of 13 staff members to eighteen visiting a school of 39 staff members. Each visiting committee followed the procedures outlined in the Manual, Section A, of the *Evaluative Criteria*. All recommendations of the visiting sub-committees and any changes in evaluations made by these sub-committees were reviewed by the entire visiting committee until a high degree of unanimity of opinion existed among committee members.

At the close of each committee visit, an oral report was given by the chairman of the visiting committee to the local school staff. This oral report was followed within two weeks by a detailed written report indicating the visitors' commendations and recommendations to the local school as a result of their visit. At the time of the oral report, it was indicated to each school that a follow-up study might be made at the end of one year to ascertain any action taken by the local school with reference to the recommendations appearing in the written report.

FOLLOW-UP PROCEDURES

Approximately one year after the visiting committee report had been received by the school evaluated, check sheets restating the specific recommendations of the committee for reaction by the local staff were sent to each school administrator. In almost all schools, a general faculty meeting was held at which the chairman of the visiting committee outlined in detail the purposes and procedures of the follow-up study. The local staffs were asked to react to the previously made recommendations in four ways. They were to indicate if the recommendation (1) was invalid, (2) had been postponed, (3) was in process

of completion, or (4) had been completed. In all schools, the self-evaluation committees were reorganized with as near the original personnel as possible and were asked to check each recommendation in light of the above criteria.

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Although the recommendations had been listed in groups under each subject title and each major area of the school as evaluated with the *Evaluative Criteria*, staff reactions to the recommendations were organized in the follow-up under three main headings to facilitate tabulation and interpretation. The three headings or classifications included recommendations requiring (1) increased budget allotments, (2) further planning by the entire staff or groups of staff members, and (3) further work by staff members on an individual basis. As it was desirable to retain anonymity of each school, the schools are listed in the following tables simply by the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6. There is no way of relating these numbers to the location of the schools as previously given.

The following table gives a breakdown of the recommendations according to the three classifications mentioned in the preceding paragraph:

TABLE 1. VISITING COMMITTEE RECOMMENDATIONS TO SIX SCHOOLS EVALUATED WITH THE EVALUATIVE CRITERIA.

Schools Evaluated	Increased Budget		Group Planning		Individual Work	
	Frequency	Per Cent	Frequency	Per Cent	Frequency	Per Cent
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
School 1	69	44.0	83	52.9	5	3.1
School 2	44	31.6	91	65.5	4	2.9
School 3	34	27.9	83	68.0	5	4.1
School 4	47	39.2	63	52.5	10	8.3
School 5	48	42.5	64	56.6	1	.9
School 6	37	37.8	52	53.0	9	9.2
Total	279	37.3	436	58.2	34	4.5

An analysis of the data in Table 1 indicates that the type of recommendations most frequently made dealt with conditions requiring further group planning. Ranking next to this were those recommendations necessitating further budgetary expenditures. A relatively small number, 4.5 per cent, of the recommendations emphasized work which would require the individualized efforts of staff members.

The response of staff members regarding their opinion of the validity of the recommendations and description of any action taken on the visiting committees' recommendations is presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2. REPORT OF ACTION TAKEN BY SIX SCHOOL STAFFS TO VISITORS' RECOMMENDATIONS WITHIN ONE YEAR AFTER THE COMMITTEE VISIT

<i>Schools Evaluated</i>	<i>Thought Invalid</i>		<i>Action Postponed</i>		<i>Now in Process</i>		<i>Completed</i>	
	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
School 1	15	9.5	52	33.1	64	40.8	26	16.6
School 2	26	18.7	40	28.8	58	41.7	15	10.8
School 3	6	4.9	44	36.0	64	52.4	8	6.6
School 4	7	5.8	46	38.3	52	43.3	15	12.5
School 5	11	9.7	35	31.0	56	49.6	11	9.7
School 6	2	2.0	48	49.0	43	43.9	5	5.1
Total	67	8.9	265	35.4	337	45.0	80	10.7

The data in the above table are especially enlightening and indicate that much has been accomplished and is being accomplished in the schools as a result of the evaluation studies. The totals in Columns 7 and 9 indicating that 45 per cent of the recommendations are now in process of completion and that 10.7 per cent have been completed substantiate these conclusions. The total in Column 3, indicating that only 8.9 per cent of the recommendations were thought by the local staffs to be invalid, is definite evidence of the validity of recommendations suggested by the visiting committees.

School Number 2, in which the staff felt that 19 per cent of the recommendations were invalid, merits further investigation. Such a marked deviation from the reports of other schools participating in this study may indicate lack of understanding by the staff of the purposes of the self- and visiting-committee evaluations, lack of appreciation of the visiting committee, or misinterpretation of the word "invalid" appearing on the recommendation check sheets. It appears logical to suspect that any adverse reaction toward participation in the study by a local staff would tend to discourage acceptance of the validity of the visitors' recommendations. It is recognized, however, that in the short time devoted to the committee visit, a small percentage of the suggestions made by visitors will undoubtedly be invalid.

In examining staff member reactions to the visitors' recommendations after regrouping these recommendations into the three categories of (1) increased budget allotments, (2) group planning, and (3) individual work, the following data are presented:

TABLE 3. ACTION TAKEN BY SIX SCHOOL STAFFS TO SPECIFIC TYPES OF RECOMMENDATIONS MADE BY VISITORS

Type of Recommendation	Thought Invalid		Action Postponed		Now in Process		Completed	
	Frequency	Per Cent	Frequency	Per Cent	Frequency	Per Cent	Frequency	Per Cent
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Increased Budget	21	7.5	144	51.6	89	31.9	25	9.0
Group Planning	44	10.1	111	25.4	230	52.8	51	11.7
Individual Work	2	5.8	10	29.4	18	53.0	4	11.8

Examination of Table 3 reveals that although action has been postponed on approximately 52 per cent of the recommendations requiring increased budgetary provisions, 32 per cent of the recommendations in this classification are now in process and nine per cent have been completed. The high percentage of postponements in this area is to be expected as such budgetary items require considerable time and study before they are endorsed by the school authorities and funds appropriated.

It is particularly encouraging to note that of the recommendations requiring further group planning, approximately 12 per cent have been completed and 52.8 per cent are in the process of completion by the staff.

CONCLUSIONS

The general conclusion to be made from an analysis of the data gathered in this follow-up study is that within one year after completion of evaluation studies in six secondary schools using the *Evaluative Criteria* and recommended procedures *definite changes have been made in these schools and extensive changes are in process of completion*. Other conclusions would be that (1) staff members of schools evaluated feel the visitors' recommendations to be valid, (2) recommendations requiring group planning and action are most frequently made by the visiting committees and are most readily carried out or in the process of being carried out, and (3) recommendations requiring budget allotments are most readily postponed although a significant number of these recommendations are in process of completion.

The professional interest and desire on the part of staff members to examine their own programs, coupled with efforts on the part of all concerned to follow the procedures recommended by the Cooperative Study of Secondary-School Standards, appear to be major factors contributing to the success of such an in-service activity.

The Problem of Our 3,000,000 Children of School Age with Hearing Defects

IRA LUNAN FERGUSON

IT is estimated by the Committee on Hard of Hearing Children of the American Federation of Organizations for the Hard of Hearing, and by the American Otological Society, that along with the 10,000,000 aurally handicapped adults, there are some 3,000,000 children of school age with hearing defects in the United States.¹ Any systematic approach to the administration and supervision of a program designed to aid these children should begin with a thorough screening procedure. The classroom teacher or school nurse can recognize certain behavior deviations which may give a clue to hearing difficulties.

PHYSICAL SIGNS

A child may sometimes fail to respond when called or spoken to, and may frequently ask, "What?" At other times he may cup his ear with his hand, or move closer to the speaker. He may assume peculiar postures, such as tilting the head at an unusual angle to get better sound reception, and so forth. He may breathe through the mouth, or complain of ringing in the ears, noises in the head, and earaches—all of which should lead the alert and observant teacher to suspect hearing difficulty, and make referral for medical examination. A child sometimes exhibits defects in speech which may be symptomatic of hearing loss. Children learn to speak by imitating vocal sounds made by parents, relatives, other grownups, and playmates, and if for some reason they can not clearly hear what is said, they can not accurately reproduce proper word sounds. Children born deaf or who become deaf early

¹Baker, Harry J., *Introduction to Exceptional Children*, Macmillan & Co., New York, pp 80-124, 1944.

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in childhood grow up to be mute, unable to talk, not because of any pathology of the throat or the vocal organs, but simply because they cannot reproduce sounds they have never heard. A child who speaks in a high-pitched tone of voice, without expression, who avoids talking to people and has an inadequate flow of language may have hearing difficulty.

SCHOOL SYMPTOMS

Poor general scholarship, poor oral work, slowness and inaccuracy in schoolwork, particularly in spelling when dictation methods are used may all be symptomatic of hearing defect in a child. Such a child usually places his own interpretation, an incorrect one more often, on many questions and topics as a substitute for complete hearing and understanding of what is going on.

SOCIAL SYMPTOMS

These may include listlessness, lack of interest, sensitiveness, aloofness, suspiciousness. A child manifesting these symptoms finds it rather difficult to gain acceptance by his fellows as a cordial acquaintance.

It is best to begin the screening process by testing children in kindergarten for hearing as well as for detection of visual defects, because the earlier the defect is discovered, the better are the chances for correction, generally speaking. Ideally, school children should be given hearing tests every year in the elementary school, since it is at this age that they suffer most from the various children's diseases, such as scarlet fever, measles, *etc.*, that occasionally leave them with impaired hearing. The "gang type" pure tone audiometer is considered the best for screening purposes by health educators, inasmuch as its use gives pitch range of hearing loss and is diagnostic of the cause. The "whisper" test is no longer considered satisfactory, due, among other things, to the difficulty of standardizing intensity and volume of the whisper. For those children selected through screening for further testing, a thorough physical examination by the physician and/or the otologist is indicated and strongly recommended. Tonsils, adenoids, obstruction of ear by cerumen (ear wax), and all other possible etiological possibilities should be investigated and ruled out. The "6-A" pure tone audiometer used to test each ear has a range of from 35 to 120 decibels. Pupils with 35% to 50% loss are usually placed in special classes. A child with less than 35% loss may be retained in the regular classroom, with provision being made for his sitting near the teacher's desk. It goes without saying that each case should be

decided upon its individual merits. The health of the child, his learning ability, and his present mastery of school subjects are all taken into consideration in deciding placement, final decision being made after all possible corrections, such as removal of wax, tonsil or adenoid operations, checking of nutritional status, middle ear infections, and so forth, have been given attention.

The terminology now used in describing persons with hearing loss is becoming more specific. A "deaf" person is now described as one who does not react understandingly to spoken language, while the "hard of hearing" individual *does* react when the source is brought within his hearing range, either through loud voice, amplification of sound, or through some mechanical device such as the hearing aid.

Deafness may be either congenital or adventitious. There is comparatively little advance made in the improvement of hearing in the congenitally deaf, although surgeons have on occasion done wonders for total congenital deafness with what they call the "fenestration" surgical technique. In this operation a "window" is literally bored in the bony structures that may have become sealed off by some obstruction against the transmission of sound. Adventitious cases of deafness may develop as a result of illness with one of the acute infectious diseases, or from generalized or local trauma affecting the tympanic membrane. For most adventitious cases, medical science has been able to do a great deal. Injury to the auditory nerve as well as inner ear or middle ear pathology sometimes is responsible, while certain drugs, including quinine, and even alcohol and nicotine have impaired the hearing.

Hearing aids are of immeasurable help in utilizing residual hearing. Sometimes parents are able to furnish children with them, but often the school has to contact the proper sources from which to have a child fitted with a hearing aid. These aids not only enable the wearer to hear better, but further help to develop in the wearer a pleasant voice, by permitting him to hear the sound of his own voice, often for the first time. The fitting of hearing aids, with information regarding their use, is discussed by several writers.² Children who wear hearing aids

²Braby, Kenneth, "Fitting Hearing Aids," *Volta Review*, Vol. 40, No. 12, pp 779-83, Dec. 1938.

Numbers, Mary E., "Learning to Hear," *Volta Review*, Vol. 44, No. 10, pp 557-58, 600-01, Oct. 1942.

White, Bernard, "Born Deaf but Learning to Hear," *Volta Review*, Vol. 49, No. 7, pp 317, 344-48, July 1947.

Cavaliere, R. A., and Cutler, James, "Rehabilitation with hearing Aids," *Volta Review*, Vol. 45, No. 11, pp 635-39, Nov. 1943.

Gates, Arthur, and Kushner, Rose, "Learning to Use Hearing Aids," *Bur. of Publ., Teachers College, Columbia Univ.*, p 53, 1946.

Ewing, Irene R., and Ewing, Alex W., *Handicap of Deafness*, Longmans, Green & Co., London, London, 1938.

have to be taught how to care for the instrument, because rough-house playing and tumbling will obviously damage the delicate instruments. The hearing aid, as an instrument for helping the deafened to hear, requires a period of adjustment to it before optimum efficiency with its use is attained. This period of adjustment is common to all users and varies only in degree from person to person. Aural training teachers insist that the aid should be worn all the time, although occasionally speech reading instructors discourage, understandably, the use of hearing aids by children who are learning to lip read.

It is often quite difficult to get persons with an aural handicap to wear their hearing aids. In a study of factors influencing school children to wear their hearing aids, Gates and Kushner² found that one third of the pupils in their study who were provided with aids discontinued them entirely, or used them only on rare occasions. In the U.S. Army, deafened men were given hearing aids on leaving rehabilitation hospitals without having been taught how to use them. A follow-up of 50 men with hearing aids showed that only 6 wore them, 31 had thrown them in their barracks bags, 9 had mailed them home, while 4 had returned the aids rather than return to duty wearing them.³

Generally the features of performance that should be tested when selecting a hearing aid are as follows⁴: tolerability, intelligibility of ordinary speech, intelligibility of faint speech, intelligibility of difficult words, freedom from internal noise, aesthetic quality, intelligibility under difficult conditions.

CURRICULUM

The curriculum for the child with defective hearing should follow as closely as possible the normal pattern, with such adjustments and modifications as are necessary for the individual child, inasmuch as there will be variations in the degree of hearing loss among the children. For the aurally handicapped child in regular classes, special classes, or in a school for the deaf, first and foremost on the curriculum is communication. Several methods are in use. First the Manual method, with signs and gestures; next, the Manual-Alphabet method—spelling out of words by various positions of the fingers for the different letters of the alphabet, and numerals. Third is the Oral method—lip-reading or speech-reading—by which the child learns to understand

²Gates and Kushner, *op. cit.*

³Davis, E.H., *Hearing and Deafness: A Guide for Laymen*. Chapters on Hearing Aids and The Choice and Use of Hearing Aids, pp 161-256. Murray Hill Books, New York, 1947.

⁴Di Carlo, Louis M., "A Program of Auditory Training for Adults with Impaired Hearing," Doctoral dissertation, Teachers Coll, 1948.

the speech of others by studying lip movements characteristic of certain words, a great deal of drill being given to homophenous words, in the pronunciation of which identical lip movements are used. Some deaf mutes are actually taught to speak by the oral method, so that they can converse in the usual way. The chief difficulty in teaching speech-reading (used by some authors instead of lip-reading) and speaking to the congenitally deaf child is getting a start on the meaning of words. Administrators, principals, and teachers of schools for the deaf prefer to begin with deaf mutes at the age of three years, because even by the age of six the child has usually resigned himself to the idea that it is no use, and makes up his mind he can get along with crude signs, mostly of his own making. The teaching of lip-reading is quite a technical procedure, requiring a great deal of skill.*

The Combined Method, which embodies all of the foregoing three methods described, is used in most schools for the deaf.

The curriculum for aurally handicapped children should also include mastery of the fundamental processes or the three R's, instruction in health, first aid, and safety education, with special application to the deaf and hard of hearing. Although deaf children find it more difficult to pursue higher education than do the blind, they should nevertheless be given every opportunity to develop whatever abilities they may have. They should be given vocational training to prepare them for earning an independent livelihood. Deaf boys have studied and achieved outstanding successes in such trades as tailoring, shop work, art crafts, cabinet making, sign or house painting, shoemaking, brick-laying, gardening, agriculture, baking, bookkeeping, clerical, and other types of occupation in which hearing is not essential. Deaf girls frequently excel in sewing, household arts, art crafts, laundry, clerical and other similar occupations.

Physical education is important for these youngsters. It is gratifyingly surprising to observe how adept most deaf and hard of hearing children can be at most games and sports. The writer has visited many schools for the deaf and has repeatedly heard teachers in these schools speak glowingly not only of the scholastic achievements of

*Nitchie, E. B., *Lip Reading, Principles and Practice*. Frederick A. Stokes Co., New York, 1930.

Nitchie, E. B., *Advanced Lessons in Lip Reading*. Frederick A. Stokes Co., New York, 1923.

Bunger, Anna M., *Speech Reading, Jena Method*. The Interstate Press, Danville, Ill., 1944.

Goodfellow, Louis D., "The Reeducation of Defective Hearing," *Journal of Psychology*, Vol. 14, pp 53-8, 1942.

Kinzie, Cora, and Kinzie, Rose, *Lip Reading for the Deafened Adult*, John C. Winston Co., Philadelphia, 1931.

pupils, but also of the unusual skill, speed, and prowess of deaf boys and girls in winning contests with normal children in baseball, football, basketball, tennis, golf, track, and other activities.

Health guidance as well as health instruction is indicated as being of especial importance for handicapped children, and this instruction should include sex education and preparation for marriage. Intelligent guidance of the deaf should prevent two congenitally deaf people from marrying, as the children of such unions are always deaf. Character training should also be a part of the curriculum. Pupils in deaf schools are quite well adjusted persons, as anyone who has visited schools for the deaf will readily see. These children consider themselves much more fortunate than blind children. It is a common observation that the deaf are very independent. One never sees a deaf man begging on the streets. Children with a hearing handicap should be encouraged to develop habits of self-reliance, industry, skill, and competence in their trade or occupation; temperance, dependability, thrift and co-operation. The personal pride and independent self-reliance which so often characterize deafened children have been of great help to counselors engaged in rehabilitation and placement work with these youngsters whose cheerfulness and courageous efforts to help themselves make it a pleasure to work with them.

Administrators experience difficulty in recruiting good teachers of the deaf. A teacher of special classes for aurally handicapped children should have a college degree, and at least one year of special training in the particular type of education needed to qualify for this work.⁶ The American Society for Teaching of Speech to the Deaf, with headquarters at the Volta Bureau in Washington, D. C., keeps a register of qualified teachers. The society also issues certificates to teachers, based on the amount of college training and additional special work completed.⁷ It goes without saying that teachers of handicapped children should be endowed with a humane, sympathetic attitude toward the unfortunate. Teachers lacking the specially desirable traits should make every effort to develop them if they would be successful teachers of the deaf.

Schools for deaf children should give thought to instituting some effective type of fire alarm signal, since bells are of negligible value to children totally deaf. Possibly very bright lights as fire signals in

⁶Montague, Harriet, *Lip Reading Lessons for Adult Beginners*, Volta Bureau, Washington, D.C., 1945.

Proceedings of the International Congress on the Care of the Deaf, 1933.

White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, "The Education of the Handicapped and the Gifted," Report of Committee on Special Classes. The Century Company, New York, 1931.

Report of the Third Convention of Articulation Teachers of the Deaf, 1884.

⁷Moss, Harry, and DeLaporte, Helen, *Training Handicapped Children*. The Ryerson Press, Toronto, 1933.

dormitories, or some other device, could be worked out for the protection and safety of the children.

It is a responsibility of the school to help parents adjust to their deafened children. Parents need education in such little matters as remembering to sit or stand in such a way when speaking to the child that light falls not from behind but on the face of the speaker, in order to make it easier for the child to read the lips. It is important that the three-foot conversational distance be maintained whenever possible, and if the speaker's head is on the same level as the deaf child's, reading of speech and of facial expressions will be facilitated for the child. Need for the education of parents in this regard has been given considerable attention by numerous authors.*

The American people are realizing the problems inherent in the education of our children who suffer handicapping hearing loss, and they are doing something about it. All but four states in the United States maintain schools for deaf children. In most of these schools the children are being taught to speak, no matter how great hearing loss may be. A few writers take issue with this type of education, doubting the advantage of teaching deaf children to speak, inasmuch as they can not hear each other, nor can they see to read speech in the dark. However, it is well worth the effort to teach these children to speak. They can then not only speak to each other in the normal way, but can talk to normal people. This undeniably makes for better adjustment all around, and the child appears less conspicuously deaf. For communication with other deaf children at night and in the dark, the deaf child may yet have devised for him a system of dots and dashes, rapped off on the arm or face of the listener by the speaker. Fingers could be dipped in some fluorescent substance to make the manual alphabet usable at night. It is possible that a small, compact instrument with radium dial for night communication could be developed for deaf persons.

The Army and Navy developed quite effective programs⁸ for the rehabilitation of deafened servicemen during World War II, and many of the techniques found useful in the stress of war time are being utilized in peacetime to help handicapped children and adults live more useful and happy lives.

*Editorial, "If Your Child Is Hard of Hearing," *Volta Review*, Vol. 38, No. 5, pp 293-96, 310-11, May 1936.

Davis, E. H., *op. cit.*

Agne, Mona W., "The High Cost of Not Hearing," *Volta Review*, Vol. 44, No. 10, pp 573-74, October 1942.

Niemoeller, A. F., *Complete Guide for the Deafened*, Harvest House, New York, 1940.

⁸McIntyre, Ross, Surgeon General, U. S. Navy, "The Navy's Program for the Deafened," *Volta Review*, Vol. 48, No. 6, pp 339-43, June 1946.

Guidance Services and Student Personnel Services

FRED M. FOWLER

CRITERION

THE current revival of interest in the old issue of the relationships between the student personnel services and the guidance services is timely. This is evidenced by existing disagreement and confusion. Without apology for presumption, I should like to suggest that we approach the issue at this time strictly and solely from the standpoint of administrative efficiency and economy. Let us use one criterion—*working effectiveness*.

COMMON ERRORS

The school administrator is confronted with two tasks: (1) Determining what needs to be done, and giving these needs sharp and concrete definition; and (2) translating these definitions into patterns of assigned duties, so timed and so assigned that the activities are mutually contributive to the goals of education.

It should be helpful if we review briefly some common administrative errors. And while this paper is pointed toward school administrators, yet the part that specialists play should stand out. It seems that the administrative function has been both helped and hindered by much dependence upon specialists—including technicians, supervisors, and trainers—in carrying out the two major tasks mentioned above.

Specialists are quite indispensable in the first task of determining and defining the needs. But I fear that the specialists have found it too hard to shift from the specialist roles to the administrative role long enough to help the administrator to do good organizational planning—that is, carry out the second major task. And so school administrators have fallen into certain easy errors. In so doing they have often been consciously or unconsciously abetted by the specialists.

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Chief among the mistakes, it seems to me, has been to make poor assignments of multiple duties. This error has shown itself in two ways. In far too many instances so many specific duties have been assigned to the same person that inevitably he must either choose between them or spread his effort thinly over all of them. And in far too many other instances duties that conflict with each other have been given to the same individual worker. In the latter instance when attention shifts from one duty to another incompatible duty, there is a loss of time and a needless use of effort in winning acceptance of the changed role.

It seems quite clear, according to our working effectiveness criterion, that what we ought to try to do is to so package the assignments that the various bundles of specific duties will be both small enough to carry and enough alike in content to hold together with the least possible stress.

Let us look for a moment at this poor duty assignment error at various levels. First, on the administrative level one or two points are worth noting. Under the right circumstances the factor of incompatibility may be safely disregarded on the administrative level. For example, this might be true in a school large enough to assign to one person total responsibility for administering all of the student personnel services and guidance services. But this would be true only where such an administrator shall not be given operational duties for working with individual students under the title, "counselor." With proper care on the part of this administrative official he might possibly work with students in relationships which are essentially administrative in nature, such as issuing work permits, making program assignments, or managing registration where authority must be exercised. But even here we should recognize that there is danger that the aura of authority may extend to the counselors working under him so that students may have a tendency to see both the counselors and the administrator under the same banner.

The points made above about the incompatibility of coupling administrative and operational responsibilities could be repeated with equal validity in the case of supervisors. But on the supervisory level still another point should be noted. We should not lose sight of the perhaps unconscious invitation to local administrators to "go thou and do likewise" when we give to state or district supervisors of guidance services the overall responsibility for supervising all of the student personnel services as well as the guidance services. The suggestion is implicit to local administrators to pattern the assignments of their own local operators along the lines of the supervisor's

interests. Thus, though under proper safeguards it may be possible to package total responsibility in one person for administering all of the student personnel and guidance services, it is highly questionable that a similar packaging should ever be made of supervisory responsibilities.

The case against combining in one person total administrative responsibility, or overall supervisory responsibility for all of the student personnel services and guidance services is strengthened when you consider the sheer bulk of such inclusive responsibility. In most school systems the size of the package is simply too large to be carried effectively. And since our criterion demands a division, the separation of duties should observe both the compatibility and bulk factors.

On the pre-service training level the problem of packaging is generally taken care of by departmentalization of curriculums in the training institutions, with an assist by the certification standards laid down by state departments of education. But it does become a real problem on the in-service training level because of the close tie with supervision and administration, and because in-service training quite properly deals largely with operational problems. Therefore, since the professional personnel of the training institutions are usually the chief in-service training resources, these resource persons should be fully aware of the packaging problem as they undertake and make specific plans for programs of in-service training. Designated counselor trainers had better confine their training activities to areas consonant with the guidance services, because of both the bulk and the compatibility factors.

Another administrative error is the fallacy of the imposed stereotype—the tendency to impose a pattern developed at one age-grade level upon the next younger school unit. The bulk of the student personnel work literature seems to be on the college level. Thus a momentum has been created that is hard to resist by the secondary schools. And the college stereotype is manifest even more in the pattern of the counselor training curriculum developed in the higher institutions. There are at least two aspects of the college stereotype which do not fit the high schools. First, there are certain student personnel services called for in colleges that are needed very little if at all by high-school students. Second, the added maturity of college students makes it possible to mix incompatible duties in the same personnel workers with less harm than would be the case on the high-school level.

WHAT ARE THE STUDENT PERSONNEL SERVICES?

These common errors may be visualized more clearly if we refer to two lists of identified personnel services. Also it will be well

to have the lists in mind in thinking about the rationale underlying the recommendations made near the end of the paper.

Below are listed the elements of a student personnel program as identified by a committee of the American Council on Education¹ and by a committee of the National Association of Guidance Supervisors.² The two lists are set forth in parallel columns to make comparison easier, although comparable items are not necessarily in juxtaposition. The items are listed in the order as arranged by the respective committees.

ELEMENTS OF A STUDENT PERSONNEL PROGRAM

A.C.E. List

1. Process of admissions.
2. Keeping personnel records.
3. Service to students of trained counselors.
4. Physical and mental health services.
5. Remedial services (speech, reading, study habits.)
6. Supervision and integration of housing.
7. Program of induction activities.
8. Encouragement and supervision of group activities arising out of common interests.
9. Program of recreational activities.
10. Treatment of discipline as an educational function.
11. Financial aid, not as dole, but as educational experience.
12. Opportunities for self-help through part-time and summer employment.
13. Placement help after leaving college.
14. Induction, orientation and counseling students from abroad.
15. Enrichment through program of religious activities.
16. Counseling for married students.

N.A.G.S. List

1. Pupil accounting (census-attendance, etc.)
2. The individual inventory record.
3. Psychological testing and diagnostic service.
4. Physical and mental health services.
5. Financial aids and scholarships.
6. Making provision for educational and occupational information.
7. Home-school relationships.
8. Counseling with pupils.
9. Placement services and employment certification.
10. Follow-up service.
11. Articulation and utilization of community resources.
12. Induction and orientation.
13. Scheduling and course planning for individual students.
14. *Housing and food service.
15. *Co-curricular, recreational, and similar group activities.
16. *Special education.
17. *Transportation services.
18. *Remedial and therapeutic services.
19. *Disciplinary action.
20. Services to teachers (helping teachers to understand individual pupils).
21. Services to the administration.
22. Relationships with the professional staff and the community.

¹*The Student Personnel Point of View*, American Council on Education Studies, Series VI, Number 13, September 1949, pp. 11-13.

²A report was presented to the Ninth National Conference of State Supervisors of Guidance Services and Counselor Trainers at Ames, Iowa, September 12, 1950.

These two lists are not quite of the same nature. The A.C.E. list purports to be more definitive, while the N.A.G.S. list is simply an identification of the services which the committee found are still considered in actual practice in various school systems to be student personnel services. As a matter of fact the N.A.G.S. committee felt that some of the items listed should be considered purely administrative, while some others are primarily instructional, and that the student personnel services have no responsibility for them other than in a co-operative role. These items are indicated by an asterisk.

The N.A.G.S. committee went still further and winnowed out of the list the items which were felt to be legitimate parts of a program of student personnel services. These legitimate items were then lumped together into six categories which they named: pupil accounting services, health services, guidance services, psychological services, home-school services, and pupil personnel research services.

RATIONALE OF RELATIONSHIPS

The language of labels is of interest. But I submit that it is not really the label that is significant. And a quibble over labels often retards good thinking and agreement over the content lying under them. It is unfortunate that the N.A.G.S. committee did not go far enough to break down each of six named categories of services. It is likely that, when such a breakdown is made into specific activities, the packaging of the corresponding duty assignments will cut across the categories. And hence, the labels of the categories do not provide good organizational cues.

Consider, for example, what happens if you break down the guidance services category. The committee did not do so, but the sub-categories commonly recognized include: Guidance Services: individual inventory service, information service, counseling service, placement service, and follow-up service. Now look at and try to decide the relationships in terms of duty assignments of the second order, sub-category, "Individual Inventory Service" to the first order, co-ordinate category, "Pupil Accounting Services."

Without an arbitrary delimitation and definition of the content of each label the administrator is stymied in carrying out his second named major task—*translating the definitions of needs into organized duty assignments*. And it is one of my essential points that administrators must do just that—that is, arbitrarily delimit and define the content of each administrative term. Indeed, as will be pointed out later, the administrator will do well not to start out with the category labels at all, but rather with an identification of the unit parts and

work up to categories. The contribution which I am trying to make in this paper is to provide a guide to the administrator in making his definitions of these unit parts.

To lead into a statement of this guide let us return to the point about language. It seems that adding the word, "services," to the category labels may have been because of a wish to provide a cue for organization. Let us carry this point out somewhat. Go back to the sub-category of the guidance services previously mentioned, "Individual Inventory Services." Then reword it to, "Individual Inventory Needs," and raise the questions, "Services to whom?" and "Whose needs?" And it is here that we can find a point of departure to look for our organizational cues.

The individual inventory service accumulates and records for convenient use significant data about individual students. These data may be used to meet various needs. For example, the information may be used in counseling as well as in teaching, and may be used administratively for evaluation or experimentally for supervision. Thus, the same organized service may serve at the same time more than one set of needs. And it is apparent that such an organized service is possible only on the basis of team work. All who have use for the data will have parts to play in securing and recording the information.

It is apparent, too, that while the "needs" in this instance of the teacher, the counselor, the administrator, and the supervisor are all ultimately the needs of the child, yet individual inventory data used by the administrator to arrive at policies for organizing his school and by the supervisor to determine good teaching methods are at least one step farther from the child than are the same data as used by the counselor or the teacher. And so it is legitimate to speak of the teacher's need, the counselor's need, the supervisor's need, the administrator's need for individual inventory data.

We could go on and make a similar breakdown of the other labeled categories. But enough has surely been said to make the point clear that it is not enough merely to recognize that carrying out *assigned duties* involves the *organizing of activities which make up the services to meet the defined needs*. It is important to go one step farther and know *whose* needs are to be served, and to see whether the services are *direct* or *indirect* to the student.

At this point of laying down the rationale of the relationships of guidance services to student personnel services, in order to remove the inhibiting effect of past labels, the writer should like to wipe them out altogether. This wish even applies to the two broad labels which have been named—"Student personnel services" and "Guidance serv-

ices." At least this would be good strategy for any administrator to follow in organizing his own total program of educational services in his school. In other words, to repeat, let's not start out with the labels. Let us rather start with needs, and services, and then apply the labels purely as an administrative convenience. Starting with a definition of needs and translating those needs into specific activities to make up the services to meet the needs should resolve automatically the issue of the relationships between the services.

And because needs and services come together in the organized relationships into which the student enters in his normal school life, I suggest that we should start by reviewing the most important of these relationships.

1. The learning situations with the teacher—the *teaching relationship*. This is undoubtedly the most important relationship into which the child enters, both because it is most frequent and lasting in the child's experience in the school and because its strategy is to create and utilize the child's readiness to learn—his readiness to grow in the direction of the values for which society maintains the school. Or in other words, it is through this relationship that the pupil achieves his important growth-learning-developmental needs. The stance of the teacher is toward the needs or values yet unachieved. And the child accepts the teacher the more because he is impelled to feel that the teacher is there because of the teacher's ability to help the child achieve these values which in one way or another or for one reason or another the child feels are important. Moreover, the child normally recognizes that the social order (including the teacher) has some right to set and define the values; and thus the child is inclined to make his own self-evaluation of his learning experience with an external and projected reference.

2. The composite of relationships involved in the child's finding and maintaining his place in the school—the *administrative relationship*. Regardless of the degree of mindfulness on the part of the representative of the school (the person who assumes an administrative role, no matter what may be his regular title in the school) of the child as an individual, administrative relationships are inevitably anchored to a concern for the integrity of the total program and smooth functioning of the organized whole. Authority is the chief characteristic of the administrative relationships even though not revealed in any single relationship. Yet the child readily accepts the normal administrative relationships because he feels that important needs are satisfied through these relationships. It is through them that other need-satisfying relationships are made possible.

3. The relationship of the child having certain troublesome personal problems with a person possessing the skills called for to help the child find satisfactory solutions—the *counseling relationship*. For the child, solutions lie in a re-seeing of self in relationship to the pertinent content of environment. And the stance of the counselor is toward the dynamics of the re-seeing process in full confidence that the remote values for which society maintains the total educational program will be more surely realized by paying primary allegiance in the counseling relationship to the troubled child and to his self-perceptions. Permissiveness is the indispensable characteristic of the good counseling relationship.

Thus, certain essential differences between the three relationships stand revealed. However pragmatic the teaching relationship may be, it is yet pointed toward projected growth-learning values. No matter how much individual differences may be recognized, yet the various administrative relationships are characterized by a concern for the institution and the element of authority is there; whereas in counseling, the relationship is absolutely voluntary, and remote values are confidently disregarded in an absorption in the dynamics of self perceptions.

It is in a proper perspective of these pupil-teacher, pupil-counselor, pupil-administrator relationships where pupil needs are met that we can find the cues for separation and packaging of the corresponding duties. And it is here where the bulk and compatibility factors take on real meaning. For example, authority and permissiveness are obviously incompatible, and combining administrative and counseling responsibilities in the same person by announced assignment is an economic waste of manpower. Again, to expect a teacher to do counseling along with teaching without a scheduled and protected time allocation for counseling is an open invitation to the teacher to sluff one or the other of the assignments. Or yet again, to give to a counselor a certain counseling load and then to expect that counselor within the time allocated for counseling to carry on certain group curricular activities, or certain so-called extracurricular activities is an act of self-deception on the part of an administrator.

Dr. Harold Mahony devised a helpful method for noting relationships between the teacher and the counselor in the high school.³ An adapted version of his chart is reproduced below with the addition of an administrator column, and with some pupil needs added. From such a chart, applied to any given school, an administrator and his staff could arrive at sound lines of separation in the assignment of specific

³*The Guidance Program*. Bulletin 45, May 1948. The Connecticut State Department of Education, Hartford, Connecticut. pp. 35-37.

INTEGRATED GUIDANCE CHART

<i>Needs</i>	<i>Administrative Relationship</i>	<i>Teaching Relationship</i>	<i>Counseling Relationship</i>
1. Admission.	Primary responsibility.	May fill delegated administrative roles.	Helps plan procedures. Works with individuals on referral.
2. Induction and orientation of incoming pupils.	Primary responsibility.	Co-operates in carrying out programs.	Helps plan procedures, and leads in preparation of materials.
3. Registration and scheduling programs.	Primary responsibility.	May fill delegated administrative roles.	Helps plan procedures on basis of individual inventory data; and works with individuals on referral.
4. Selection of occupational goal.	Provides needed materials and facilities.	Provides assistance.	Primary responsibility.
5. Planning educational program.	Provides assistance.	Primary responsibility.
6. Successful achievement.	Primary responsibility.	Provides assistance as a resource person.
7. Educational experience according to individual needs.	Primary responsibility.	Provides assistance as a resource person.
8. Placement in a job or in the next educational level.	Provides assistance.	Primary responsibility.
9. Orientation to next school beyond and for drop-outs.	Provides assistance, but largely responsible for carrying out specific activities.	Primary responsibility, initiates plans and procedures.

INTEGRATED GUIDANCE CHART (continued)

<i>Needs</i>	<i>Administrative Relationship</i>	<i>Teaching Relationship</i>	<i>Counseling Relationship</i>
10. Good study habits.	Primary responsibility.	Provides assistance as a resource person.
11. Solutions to personal problems.	Makes disposition of cases when counseling fails, and when authority must be exercised.	Shares responsibility with counselor.	Shares responsibility with teacher, but is a resource person for working with pupils whose problems are beyond the time and skills of the teacher and administrator.
12. Self-understanding.	Provides assistance, but is largely responsible for specific activities.	Primary responsibility, initiates plans for data-securing activities; resource person for interpreting data through counseling.
13. Choice of extra-curricular activities.	Provides assistance.	Primary responsibility.
14. Overcoming or adjusting to handicaps.	Provides needed remedial and therapeutic specialists.	Shares responsibility, depending on level of difficulty, secures pertinent individual data.	Shares responsibility, depending upon level of difficulty; identifies pupil who needs to be referred to specialist.
15. Exploring needs and abilities.	Shares responsibility.	Shares responsibility.
16. Financial or other types of help from community or school agencies.	Primary responsibility. Makes the referrals which must be made on an authoritative level.	Provides assistance by identifying pupils who need help.	Provides assistance by developing pupil readiness through counseling; also by making referrals as a result of counseling.

duties. However, we must recognize that the size of each person's package of duties could be made only after a careful man-hour analysis of the related activities in a particular school.

GENERAL RECOMMENDATIONS

Keeping in mind the administrative errors, reviewed at the beginning of this paper, as well as the rationale laid down as a guide to administrators in organizing the student personnel and guidance services, the following general recommendations seem to stand out.

1. The safest approach is a simple administrative application of the criterion—*working effectiveness*.

2. The separate duties assigned to any one personnel worker should be limited to a total load that permits full performance of all of them; and the separate duties which each person carries should be compatible with each other.

3. The man-hour analysis of specific duty assignments should take into account the difference between leadership responsibility and operational responsibility.

4. While team work is necessary in getting all of the activities carried on which go to make up an organized service, and many persons in the school may be charged with their performance, yet leadership for the organized cluster of activities should not be divided. In other words, interrelated activities need to be held together in assigning leadership responsibility.

SPECIFIC RECOMMENDATIONS

Again, keeping in mind the above general recommendations, certain specific recommendations are fairly obvious.

1. It is desirable that all members of a school's staff, including teachers, shall be able to do certain amounts and levels of counseling; yet if a school's counseling service shall approach adequacy there must be one or more assigned counselors who should not also be assigned to duties that call for working with individual students in relationships which are essentially administrative in nature.

2. Where it is desirable to divide the counseling load so that the titled counselors must carry other assigned duties, it is safest to combine teaching and counseling duties in order to minimize the factor of incompatibility.

3. It is generally unwise to give to assigned counselors combination responsibilities for the various "extracurricular" activities because of the tendency of the latter to crowd to the front of the counselor's attention.

4. In allocating counseling time, allowance should be made for the "overhead" activities to counseling, and for the leadership responsibilities to be exercised therewith. That is, it will be found that leadership for the guidance program should ordinarily stem from the assigned counselors; and that, therefore, the bulk factor of organization will demand the arbitrary limitation of the organized guidance program to only the activities which are most interdependent and interrelated.

5. The organized guidance program should include no more than the following: a. counseling service (including such overhead activities as working with home and community agencies in the interest of individual children); b. individual inventory service; c. information service (including orientation activities); d. placement service; e. follow-up service; and f. research service with respect to the above.

SUMMARY

The issue of the relationships between the educational services commonly labeled "Student Personnel Services" and "Guidance Services" remains an issue only because we continue to approach those parts of education from the starting point of labels.

There can be no issue if we, first, start by defining student needs; and second, translate those needs into organized duty assignments to meet the needs, thus arriving at labels purely as an administrative convenience.

The second of the above steps will be easier to take if we note the nature of the pupil relationships with the professional personnel of the school and give due weight to the compatibility of the various duties involved in establishing and carrying on those relationships; and if we make a man-hour analysis of those same duties so that no one person will be expected to do more than can be done fully.

In short, the two chief dimensions of the organizational criterion, *working effectiveness*, are the factors of compatibility and bulk. And if the criterion is applied to the organizational pattern in any local setting there can be no controversial issue.

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Business Education to the Fore

WINIFRED O'HARA

BUSINESS education is one of the most vital areas in the secondary school curriculum today. The majority of high-school graduates do not have the opportunity to go on to colleges or universities. Therefore, it is the responsibility of the secondary school to prepare students to take their places in the business world. There is a business side to every type of activity in which we take part. Every student is entitled to a well-rounded point of view of the business as well as the social world, and this will help to make him a better citizen and build a better community.

The business teacher is one of the key men in the school's public relations program. Public relations begin in the classroom because we are instructing the future citizens and leaders. The children in the classes today will be the public relations representatives tomorrow.

CREATE STUDENT INTEREST

Granted that the business teacher has an enviable position in the public relations program, his first duty is to create interest in the subjects taught in this curriculum. How will he do it? Most children are enthusiastic, eager to achieve, and enjoy good lively competition. Motivate the class work with competition and contests. In typewriting it is easy to form Typing Clubs and give awards for achievement. Have the class elect chairmen and vice-chairmen of each club. These are responsible for checking papers, making up charts to be posted on the bulletin boards, and keeping the record of each student up to date. Typewriting awards and shorthand awards for speed, accuracy, and production can be awarded in assembly programs before the school body and arouse interest in taking these highly vital subjects. The contests develop the interest in working with one another which is necessary. We must be careful not to have competitions that center all the attention on an individual who may be outstanding. By having

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the class members work in teams and compete this way, a keen sense of good sportsmanship and co-operation is developed.

The school paper is another means of developing interest in the business department. Often the English department is in charge of the writing of the material for the paper, but the typewriting department can take care of the typing of the paper. Students have great interest in writing for this project and vie with one another to see who will be selected to type it. The students ask for the assignment and are eager to work on it either in school or after school. They put their business skills to practical use and profit by it.

HAVE LEADING BUSINESS MEN SPONSOR BUSINESS CLUBS

The establishment of business clubs within a school adds much to the interest and motivation of the business subjects. Future Business Leaders of America is a most worthwhile organization and every secondary school should strive to organize a club in the school. Officers are elected, pins awarded for outstanding work, contacts with business leaders in the community are made, and these club members will make extremely good public relations officers for a school in the community.

For such a club it is helpful to have a leading business man sponsor it and have several men in the community work with the sponsor and the group and give suggestions and inspiration. Get some of the business leaders of the community to speak at meetings of the club, or if there is not a club in the school, have these business leaders speak to classes in business training, bookkeeping, shorthand, or any of the business education classes.

In basic business the students can do committee work and in this manner develop initiative and responsibility. The co-operative work done will strengthen the character of the student and enable him better to appreciate his fellow student. Contacts made through committee work are invaluable. The students contact other departments in the school, seek information in the library, vitalize social science courses, and through interviews with business men and visits to business concerns develop public relations for the school and for the business department especially. Students should visit stores, banks, business concerns, transportation companies, offices, and industry and get first hand information for their courses. This enables them to appreciate the work accomplished in their own community and builds enlightened citizens of tomorrow.

Another method that is most beneficial in the creating of interest in business subjects is the use of panel discussions or debates in class. Whether it is in a commercial law class, in the business English

class, or in basic business, a panel creates so much interest in the subject at hand that the students do considerable research and in that manner learn a great deal about the subject. Then in the discussion which follows the presentation of the panel speakers, the class as a whole enlarges its views on the particular subjects discussed.

Interest in a subject can be developed by the use of scrapbooks or notebooks. These must be meaningful to be of value. A student may keep a scrapbook with clippings from the newspaper or from magazines showing trends in business, pictures of new office machines, or new methods in filing or duplicating. Any business subject lends itself to scrapbook or notebook work and this develops the student's interest in reading business subject matter in everyday papers and magazines. Business moves so quickly it is necessary to keep up with new ideas and developments.

DEMONSTRATIONS GOOD TECHNIQUE

The business teacher can invite machine salesmen and experts in any particular field to visit his classes and demonstrate the use of the new equipment. This affords an opportunity for the students to see new equipment demonstrated and the school builds a reputation of being on its toes and learning about all new developments in the business field.

The Business Education Supervisor can assist in the public relations of his department. He has a wonderful opportunity to demonstrate his techniques and ideas in any of the classes in the business field. The business teacher assists the public relations program tremendously by inviting the supervisor to visit his classes and talk to the students or demonstrate new techniques or equipment.

We should publicize the success stories of graduates from the department who receive honors or who secure positions in the business field that show their ability to secure and progress in the work. We hear too much about the graduates who get into difficulties with the law or who are failures and not enough about the vast majority who make good.

ESTABLISH GOOD PUBLIC RELATIONS AMONG TEACHERS

Many times you hear teachers complain that the administration and teachers seem to favor the so-called academic subjects and bypass the business education department. This can be rectified by the business teacher himself. He should develop good relations with the other departments and work with them. Once they discover all the good work that is being done you will have sold the department forever.

For example, assist the music teacher by having students type stencils of the songs that she is teaching. Or if there is to be an operetta the students could type and mimeograph the programs. At the same time you could co-operate with the Art Department and have the art teacher recommend one of her students to draw the design for the cover and trace it on the stencil using the Mimeoscope. Both the music and art teachers are delighted to have their work displayed so beautifully and appreciate what can be done by the business students. At the same time, when these programs are handed to visitors who attend the operetta, they can see the excellent work that is accomplished by the business students and you have sold the patrons of the school on the value of the department.

The same thing is true of the dramatic teacher or of the English teacher. You can make true friends of the English teachers and they will thank you eternally when you offer to type and mimeograph or duplicate their outlines, bibliographies, lesson sheets, or any of the vast amount of material used by English teachers. It makes their work so much more enjoyable and it is much better to place in the hands of students a typewritten paper with rules and regulations, than to expect the students to take it from dictation or read it from the blackboard. The time saved and eyesight saved in itself justifies it.

You can work with any of the departments in much the same manner. Make friends with your social studies teachers. Soon they will be asking their students to type their notebooks and papers. The science teachers have occasion to use many outlines and check sheets which can be typewritten by students in the typing department. All departments can be sold on the value of the work done there and allot it a place as high or higher than any other in the school.

While teaching a class of beginning typewriting in a junior high school, I found that a few students were so small that their feet didn't reach the floor and they couldn't comply with my request to put their feet on the floor. I consulted the Shop Department of the school and found the teacher most co-operative and glad to construct some foot-blocks to place under the children's feet in order to enable them to rest their feet properly. Every department in a school is proud of the work it puts out and we should all work together to build up the school as a whole and our own department in particular. Good public relations among teachers is highly desirable.

You have sold the student body and the teachers in the school on the value of the business department. Now let your principal know the value of the work done in your classes. Invite the principal to visit your class, display the work done by the students, and he will

appreciate the value of the business visitors that he would do without any department before he would give up the business department.

TEACHERS MUST BE WELL QUALIFIED

In order to establish and continue a progressive and enlightened department, the business teacher must be well qualified. First he must know his skills. In order to teach in this field all business teachers should be skilled in typewriting. Those who plan to teach secretarial subjects must know shorthand, dictating machines, and office machines in general. Others who plan to pursue the accounting line should be well qualified in bookkeeping, commercial arithmetic, and commercial law. And those who plan to teach Distributive Education must possess a knowledge of the above mentioned subjects with special training and experience in salesmanship and retailing.

Not only must the teacher be well trained in his skills, but he should also have training in methods of teaching these subjects. He must know how to teach. In other words, he must sell his courses and the best salesman knows his goods and presents it in such a way it is difficult to resist.

Along with his professional training and experience, the business teacher must have a good personal appearance. He must be neatly dressed, well groomed, and alert. Good health and steady nerves will prove an asset. He should have an ethical philosophy of business, be social minded, and be sympathetic toward the student and his problems. A pleasing personality and ability to get along with the students and the public is absolutely a necessity with the business teacher.

The business teacher should have actual business experience in the area in which he teaches. This is most valuable in order that his presentation of material will be practical and not theoretical. He should keep up with new ideas and techniques of business by working in a store or office during the summer vacations or by taking a year's leave to work in business in order to be able to train the students in the current demands of business.

If it is not possible to work as described above, he can keep abreast of the times by taking graduate courses and learning new methods and new techniques in business and its presentation. There are new machines developed and marketed every year. One can learn about these by visiting the offices of such companies and asking for demonstrations or by attending institutes or conventions where exhibits are held and machines displayed and demonstrated. The teacher should always be receptive to new ideas and progress with such developments.

GIVE BUSINESS COURSES PROPER PLACE IN CURRICULUM

Commercial courses have been considered easy too long, and many schools used the department as a dumping ground for students who couldn't make the grade in some academic field. But business arithmetic is complex, shorthand is difficult and requires the skills and application necessary to learn a foreign language, and typing skill is as important as that of an expert machinist. The office worker needs to have a command of English and excellent work habits.

There has been a tendency to crowd business subjects out of the curriculum with so many required courses. If a teacher would inquire of the universities in his locality to see what college entrance credits are given for the various business courses, it would encourage more consideration on the part of the administration.

The initiative for improvement must come from the business teacher. He should use good sales techniques in approaching the administrative officers and not be afraid of stepping on someone's toes. He can recommend administrative procedures affecting business education and consult with the other teachers in his department to see if they are all in accord. The teachers should always work together to strengthen their department.

MAKE CONSTRUCTIVE SUGGESTIONS

Any suggestion made to the administration should be constructive and positive. Problems should be stated in writing in terms of how it affects the students. Teachers can find out what other schools are doing by reading business organizations publications, by visits to schools, and by attending conferences or conventions. The teacher should be sympathetic with the problems of the administration when making suggestions because it has budgets, boards, *etc.*, to deal with.

COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIPS

The purposes of business education are the purposes of people in almost every walk of life. The business teacher holds a key position in the school's public relations program. The teacher can participate in community activities such as clubs, church, and service organizations. The community will appreciate the value of the business department if the public is invited to visit the school and participate in what it is doing. This may be done through an advisory committee.

ADVISORY COMMITTEES

An Advisory Committee must be active and hold meetings about once a month. It should be representative of business men in the community and the teachers in the department. By discussing their

problems each month, the business teachers can bring before the representatives of business and industry what the school is doing and its potentialities. The Advisory Committee can consult with the School Board and make recommendations. In this way the department will be up-to-date. The Committee can recommend new classroom equipment; evaluate the effectiveness of the training; and make surveys to determine the number of students it would be most beneficial to train for the various available jobs in the community. The committee could also help in locating well-trained business teachers and could provide periodic employment for teachers to keep up with new techniques and equipment in the business world.

Probably one of the best means of enlightening the general public is by the adult education classes usually offered in one of the high schools. Through these classes the people who are employed in industry will learn and appreciate the work being carried on in the business department, and the employers will recognize the benefits derived.

CO-OPERATIVE EDUCATION IS GOOD PUBLIC RELATIONS MEDIA

Co-operative education is one of the best public relations media. Whether the school has a distributive education program or a co-operative office training program, the teacher meets with the business representatives and discusses their mutual problems. The students participating in these programs must be well trained and reliable. It is the duty of the teacher to instil good work habits and a sense of responsibility which is so essential to success in any position.

Business education is a part of general education. However, its main purpose should be vocational training. The business men and public judge a school by the kind of graduate it turns out and we must see that they are trained to secure an initial position and then to meet their responsibilities and progress in the work. To provide information that will reveal to students the job opportunities and requirements is the duty of the business teacher acting in an advisory capacity, or, better still, as a vocational guidance director. If the school does not have a full-time guidance director, the business teacher is in an excellent position to give information about available jobs and the necessary qualifications needed for each. Once the students are placed in their initial positions, the work of the business teacher in the capacity of a guidance counselor does not cease. He should follow up the students, contact the business firms, and see that the student is getting along. You have sold your business department when you have satisfied business men employing your students.

Industrial Arts in the Secondary School

ANDREW T. POWER

DEVELOPMENT

PROFESSIONAL maturation is as desirable for whole blocks of educational endeavor as it is for individuals. It should be a product of growth, adaptation, proven worthiness, and acceptance. An individual may gain professional maturity through the well known methods of study and application in a relatively short period of time. An area of work, a belief, or a block of educational endeavor, may, and usually does, require a considerably longer time to reach the point of maturation. Industrial arts is, historically speaking, one of the newcomers to the public school curriculum. Since its beginning it has taken approximately three full generations of teachers to develop it to its present status. Today that area of work stands in its maturity as an accepted and worthy part of the general education program of modern and forward-looking high schools.

OBJECTIVES

The administration in general, and those who are specially responsible for industrial arts at Bloomfield Senior High School, Bloomfield, New Jersey, consider it a valuable part of the curriculum and of school life. Those people have proved their conviction of the value of that area of education by allowing it to grow and develop in proportion to value received. Of the approximately fourteen hundred students at Bloomfield High School, about forty percent of the graduates each year pursue some form of higher education or further training. In spite of this relatively high percentage of people who continue to study after graduation from high school, the curriculum is definitely geared to general education. It is designed to help youngsters to learn to live.

Andrew T. Power is a teacher of woodworking and home mechanics in the Senior High School of Bloomfield, New Jersey.

A recent survey shows that roughly sixty percent of the total male student body at our high school elect to take one or more industrial arts courses each year. In addition to the boys, a small group of girls is also enrolled. Some chose the courses to satisfy the urge for development of a leisure-time activity. Others recognize the industrial arts laboratories as places where they may be able to apply academic information to achieve really tangible results. It is, of course, generally accepted that any type of manipulative activity usually assists development of and correlation between mental and physical achievement. Some students seek enrollment in industrial arts classes for the purpose of gaining information and skills which may be prerequisite to future prevocational or vocational training. All of the cases cited above are in harmony with well selected objectives of industrial arts education. Regardless of future occupational choices, most humans do eventually become maintainers of homes and purchasers and users of industrial products. It is probably in the area of home maintenance and of purchase, use, and maintenance of manufactured items, that information and skills acquired through these courses are of greatest value. One could continue to cite worth-while objectives and valuable results, but that is not the purpose of this presentation. Let us simply agree that as a part of general education the industrial arts are designed to help make the student a more complete individual. The objective of this article is to describe how one school has developed its industrial arts program to take its place as a mature phase of the general curriculum. It is further designed to indicate the versatility of the staff, and its product, and the effects of this versatility on student life. Professional acceptance into the school family has been one of the many gratifying results of careful planning and prudent application.

DESCRIPTION OF THE BLOOMFIELD PLAN

The whole industrial arts program at Bloomfield Senior High School utilizes four shop-laboratories and two drafting rooms. The four laboratories are on the ground floor, while the two drafting rooms are on the first floor of the building. All rooms are easily accessible, have good natural and artificial light, are attractively decorated, and are well equipped. Much of the equipment has been acquired since World War II, and is therefore modern. What equipment was in use before that time is of high quality and has been well maintained.

WOODWORKING

The woodworking and home mechanics course and laboratory is presently in the process of reorganization. The complement of hand

tools is being increased and some new machines are being procured. A good finishing room, separate from the construction part of the laboratory, is being established, and suitable project storage is being constructed. This shop-laboratory is equipped to furnish experiences in elementary hand woodworking and carpentry, and in cabinet making and machine woodworking. Much of the instruction is individualized. By maintaining flexibility in the guide to the course content, it is possible to give full consideration to the background, needs, and interests of each individual pupil. Experiences in machine woodworking are reserved until students have developed reasonable hand skills. In addition to being capable with hand tools each student must prove himself to be physically, emotionally, and socially ready to operate motorized equipment.

Throughout the course an abundance of related information is taught. In this related study a persistent effort is made to include information which is pertinent to home maintenance. In addition, material on the woodworking and building industries ranks high in assigned home work. A study of the lumbering industry is made. Purchase, use, and care of building materials, both natural and manufactured, are also among the many other items of related information which are covered. A textbook of recent publication is used as a guide. Several popular magazines dealing with construction and maintenance are also used as resource material. A considerable amount of emphasis is placed on learning to plan intelligently and on the value of following plans. Students are always required to produce an understandable plan of procedure accompanied by suitable drawings or sketches.

HOME MECHANICS

Besides the variety of explorations and experiences which may be termed as strictly woodworking, practical home mechanics lessons are being included in the revised course. Elementary household electricity will be discussed, with special emphasis on what electrical problems the amateur should or should not attempt to handle. Included will be experience in fuse, switch, lamp, door bell, and appliance troubles. A lesson on reading meters is also offered. Cutting and replacing glass is taught. The ever-present job of replacing faucet washers and handling sluggish drains is a home maker's problem which the students learn to care for. Even though furniture finishing is a part of every woodworking project, refinishing of old furniture is given separate attention in the home mechanics portion of the course. Besides the items mentioned above every student is encouraged to bring in problems of home maintenance on which he or his family needs help or information.

DRAFTING

Industrial arts drafting, like the other industrial arts subjects, is organized to help young people achieve more complete development. Registration is open to both boys and girls in all high-school classes. A basic knowledge of graphic representation and drafting is known to be very valuable to almost everyone, at one time or another. Its value is proven in the need for an understanding of working drawings, by the average worker in industry. It has also proven to be an asset to many a home owner in planning and accomplishing home maintenance and modernization. Elementary drafting is within the mental and physical capacity of any high-school student who has proper motivation and who will apply himself. Besides serving the needs of those who will use the fundamentals of drafting, the elementary course is foundational for more advanced work.

Many students who expect to attend college, and follow professional careers, elect the course. These are usually youngsters who have a good aptitude in mathematics and other related subjects, and who possess above average dexterity. The calibre of work in which they indulge should be considered pre-engineering or pre-professional. With this group are people who are interested in preparing for some type of engineering, architectural, or aviation career. These students are, of course, encouraged to take at least two years of drafting to enable them to really get well into the area of their choice.

Regardless of whether the elementary or one of the more advanced courses is being pursued, the information that is taught is highly utilitarian. In addition to drawings done directly from machine parts several different texts are used as resource and reference materials. Enough latitude is maintained to avoid losing sight of individual pupil's interests. Their natural interests are often exploited to stimulate interest and participation in class activity. Construction of projects and models has been very successful, especially in the unit on architecture, wherein each student develops his own workable design for a building. Utilization of projects as home work assignments has sharpened interest in experimentation and originality. Related information concerning drafting in industry and business often leads students into discussions of job possibilities in the field. These discussions also serve to strengthen the understanding of the relationship between the content of courses and the industrial, business, or everyday world.

A fairly high degree of correlation of drafting with other subject matter has been enjoyed. Mathematics, science, social studies, fine arts, and the industrial arts shop-laboratories, are areas where good correlation has been evident. Very often the youngsters in the drafting

courses are called upon to utilize their skills in doing something for the school. Classroom and office doors have been lettered, charts for various purposes have been made, and students are constantly applying their skills as a part of the required work for some of their other subjects.

MECHANICS OF TRANSPORTATION

A course which it is believed is unique in its approach and scope, is one in mechanics of transportation. This shop-laboratory is relatively new, as it is now only in its fourth year of operation. The course represents a sincere effort to explore the problems of general transportation, as well as those of some stationary equipment. As used in this area, general transportation refers to land, water, and air transportation. Included in the modern equipment of the laboratory are: a bicycle with motor; a motorcycle; six representative automobile engines, on universal mounts, as well as representative clutch, transmission, and differential assemblies; a two-cycle gas engine with generator; an outboard engine; an inboard water-cooled engine; an air-cooled marine engine; a Wright radial airplane engine; and a Continental horizontally opposed airplane engine. In addition to this school-owned equipment, the boys bring in some of their own equipment to repair. Model airplane, motor scooter, outboard, and motorcycle engines are among those which students have brought to the shop. After initial theory relative to the automobile is thoroughly understood, some boys also bring automobiles to the school to work on them. At this point it should be stated that indulgence in "hot-rod" activities is definitely discouraged, except where they belong—on a proper track.

Registration in the transportation course is elective, but it is restricted to junior and senior boys. This restriction is to make sure that all who are interested will be accommodated, when they are at or near the driving age. It is an action course. Students actually work on and operate the equipment. Students develop a good consumer understanding of the forms of transportation which they will use. They also learn the principles of their operation. Through actual experience on the equipment they become more intelligent users and operators, who are able to diagnose common troubles and make common repairs. Related study helps to develop appreciation of good design and dollar value, in purchasing a means of transportation. While the approach is general, the organization and conduct of this area of work is kept flexible enough to allow for specific interests which may help in a student's future livelihood.

The course is organized with the following basic units: automotive; railroad; aviation; and miscellaneous, including bicycle, motorcycle,

marine, and stationary motorized equipment. The boys in each class are divided into crews, with a student leader for each crew. Through a rotation cycle each crew has experience in every unit of the course. During the automotive unit students study the history of the automobile, its operation, and some of the principles involved in its purchase, use, and repair. Problems of the fleet truck and bus owner are also discussed. The economic influences of the vast automobile industry are touched upon. Employment and small business opportunities in the industry are discussed. In this unit a minimum of two field trips is taken, and movies and other visual aids are widely used. About forty-five per cent of this course is devoted to the automobile unit.

The outstanding purpose of the aviation unit is to develop a better understanding and appreciation of the mechanical principles in modern engines. This is accomplished by classroom discussion and work in the shop on the Wright nine-cylinder radial and the Continental A-65 engines. Also, the student is oriented in future types of propulsion and enlightened on occupational opportunities in the field of aviation and its related industries. In this unit it is customary to take one field trip to an airport.

Due to understandable reasons, the unit on railroading is mainly classroom work. Visual aids are copiously used and at least one trip is taken to a railroad roundhouse and freight classification yard so students can get first hand information relative to railroading. The instructor has enjoyed splendid co-operation from the railroad industry in arranging field trips and in acquiring free illustrative materials. In this unit special attention is given to organization, communications, employment opportunities, and consumer travel information, as they relate to the railroad industry.

At least twelve weeks each year are used for the boys to get experience on the mechanical equipment. Because of the variety of opportunities available there is a broad divergence of pupil interest displayed during this period. It is here that the boys may exercise a choice of engine to work on, as a specialization. This requires each student to apply his skill, because all engines, except the radial airplane engine, must run. One example of success in this respect is that the present outboard engine has been disassembled and assembled over two hundred times, and it still operates very well.

An indication of the popularity and value of the transportation course is that each year there are many more requesting the course than can be accommodated. Requests for advanced instruction in this area are also so numerous that it may be necessary to consider initiation of an advanced course.

METAL AND PLASTICS LABORATORY

One of the popular shop-laboratories at Bloomfield High is the combined metal and plastics laboratory. That area is equipped to give experiences in seven different kinds of metal-working as well as in both hot and cold plastics working. Even though such a broad variety of activities is unusual, in the same laboratory, it has been proved here that they can be handled with very satisfactory student success. This course attracts students with interests ranging from artistic manipulation to pre-engineering.

The experiences in jewelry making, art metal, and plastics working serve to satisfy artistic temperaments and hobby interests. Some of us believe that in a large school there should be a few courses which students elect simply because they like them. In such courses many emotional snarls are untangled and much good human engineering is accomplished. Opportunities to do sheet metal, wrought iron, machine shop, and forge work serve to furnish good pre-industrial information and experience. A heat treatment unit furnishes an introduction to the science of metallurgy. The ancient and singular art of metal spinning is another unusual unit to be found in this laboratory. Because of the prevalence of so many plastics products in use today, it is felt that young people should have a good understanding of the materials from which they are made. While student interest runs mainly to manipulating plastics and constructing with it, generous portions of related information concerning purchase, use, and maintenance of plastic products are included.

As in the other industrial arts areas, each student is required to plan carefully his procedure in the area of metal working and plastics working. In plastics, jewelry, and art metal work, it is possible to develop many original ideas of design, thus forming a corollary with the fine arts. Besides the consumer information, which is a part of this course, the appropriate related mathematics and related science is taught. Enrollment in this course is open to both boys and girls of all high-school grades. It must, of course, be realized that not every student participates in every activity in this laboratory. Minimum requirements are set up to insure development of diversified skills, but these requirements are kept flexible in order to allow for individual differences.

GRAPHIC ARTS

One of our newest additions to the area of industrial arts education at the senior high school is a course in the graphic arts. At the present only about one half of one teacher's time is devoted to the graphic arts, but popular demand indicates that more instructional time will

need to be allotted to this course. The high-school laboratory is equipped for: type composition and press work; celluloid dry point etching; bitten-line etching; lithography; linoleum block printing; silk screen work; and book bindery.

The graphic arts are the processes by which records and thoughts have been given visible form, through pictures, writing, and the various forms of printing. Through the graphic arts, appreciations and techniques of expression and enjoyment may be developed which should be of lifetime value to everyone. In addition to this general virtue, there are several more specific values in a course in the graphic arts at the secondary level. A better consciousness is developed of the role of printing and the graphic arts as a social and cultural force. The effects of printing upon an individual student's life, and the part printing has had in communications and in general world progress are explored. Students become more aware of printing as a means of artistic expression, through ingenious layout and design patterns. The old axiom, "that one illustration is worth a thousand words," becomes more meaningful as a youngster comes to realize the power of illustration in the expression of an idea. Intermingled through the experiences of the graphic arts students is research and discussion relative to occupational opportunities in the many graphic arts fields.

Packages, books, posters, floor and wall coverings, textiles, newspapers, and all other forms of printing are being produced now, more than ever before, by new applications of old processes, some of which differ widely in principle and method from the more commonly known form of printing from type. As an example, the making of and printing from an etching provides the means of knowing the principles employed in modern gravure production methods. Another one is in hand book binding. The steps in sewing and casing a book are so similar to those performed by machine that a person only has to add to his knowledge a study of the mechanical adaptations to understand how books are commercially produced. Several more similar cases of this nature could be cited in an exhaustive treatment of the values of graphic arts courses.

This area of work is one of the most natural for correlating industrial arts experiences with academic subjects. Correlations with the language arts, fine arts, and social studies have been quite effective. One such correlation has been developed by encouraging individual students to enter into research on some noted person, a sport, or any other topic of interest to the student. This necessitates practical use of reading skills and requires students to further develop and use the art of writing. Language arts teachers are invited

to use these opportunities to impress upon the students a practical use of some phases of their work, which sometimes seems rather abstract to the student. To insure validity of research in this type of project, the youngster can turn to his experiences in the social studies. Fine arts are involved in the necessary and appropriate illustrations. After practical applications of these correlations have been made, the student in the graphic arts laboratory completes this project by taking it through the steps of linoleum block cutting and printing, setting of type and job press printing, and bindery of the finished product. As well as furnishing an excellently correlated experience, this whole process is a very reasonable duplicate of what is done in commercial printing in producing a publication. It is hoped that in the future an experience similar to the above may be developed on a group basis rather than as individual work.

Everyone who operates a graphic arts laboratory is, of course, called upon to produce many items for school purposes. This is to be expected and as long as the requests are not so numerous that they subjugate the real purpose of the course, these jobs should be welcomed. Valuable practical experience is gained by the student who participates in such jobs. In conjunction with our graphic arts course, a Printing Squad has been organized, as a club activity, which has very effectively handled many requests of this nature.

HOME AND FAMILY EDUCATION

Last year a course in home and family education was inaugurated for all senior students of both sexes. The social studies department, which is directing the course, invited several other departments in the school to participate in its organization and operation. This was done in an effort to develop a program which will be highly utilitarian. Two members of the industrial arts department each devote one period each day to teaching part of the home and family life course. An effort is made to discuss and disseminate information which will be useful to the many students who will soon become maintainers of homes and users of appliances and industrial materials.

Home selection and home planning is one of the first items covered in this unit. The sociological and economic phases of this problem are considered, as well as constructional aspects. Local and nearby zoning regulations and building codes are studied and explained. Building materials and standard types of construction are examined, not overlooking the fact that what may be practical for one part of the country may be impractical for another locality. Students in these areas have actual opportunities to go into the shops and become ac-

quainted with the common hand tools, and with many simple tool processes. Instruction is given in such items of home maintenance as: painting, paperhanging, refinishing floors and furniture, and simple plumbing, electrical, masonry, and roofing maintenance problems. A few periods are also devoted to acquainting these students with an automobile engine in the transportation laboratory. Information is imparted on what to look for in buying a used car and on many other family transportation problems.

Students are encouraged to help plan the procedure and content of this experience, in an effort to tie the values to present home problems as well as to future ones. As each of these teachers gets a new group every four and one-half weeks, over the period of one year, practically every senior student in our high school will have been taught by one or the other of these men with industrial arts training.

STUDENT ACTIVITIES

When a school is democratically organized and operated, each member of the staff has an equal opportunity to influence school philosophy and affect student life. In Bloomfield High School there is a rather full schedule of activities. One good way for staff members to participate in and influence student life is through this club program. The members of the industrial arts staff are very active in the club program, as well as being prominent in faculty committee work.

An industrial arts teacher is advisor to the Stage Crew Club. That club is responsible for the stage for all school activities as well as for some outside functions. It is a very active group because practically all of the scenery as well as some of the properties which are needed are constructed by the members of the club. Another shop instructor serves as advisor to the Hi-Y. Because the Hi-Y uses a Y.M.C.A. in a neighboring town, that activity reaches beyond the school in its operation as well as in its influence. One of the other instructors supervises the Printing Squad, and still another, the Radio Club. The Printing Squad is a service organization which handles many of the routine printing jobs which are needed by the school and its several departments. The Student Council of Bloomfield High School is becoming increasingly effective. An industrial arts teacher serves as advisor to that important student organization. Thus, a quick glance at the record shows that every member of the industrial arts teaching staff is taking an active part in student activities which reach beyond the realm of classroom work and into the life of the local community and even beyond.

PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITIES

The Department is represented by membership on the following professional committees: Related Arts Curriculum Committee; Faculty Council; High School Curriculum Committee; Person-Pupil Evaluation Committee; Senior Play Production Staff; Christmas Program Committee; Bloomfield Teachers' Association Executive Committee; Bloomfield Teachers' Association Public Relations Committee; High School Display and Exhibit Co-ordination; and Home and School Council.

There is a growing tendency in our organization to minimize strict subject and departmental lines, wherever doing so will serve to broaden and enrich the program offered. The present Director of Industrial Arts serves as co-ordinator of other related arts, at the High School. The related arts included in addition to industrial arts are homemaking, fine arts, and music. Another spilling over of instructional versatility is in the fact that one of the industrial arts instructors operates an arts and crafts laboratory with a fine arts approach. These extensions of duties and efforts serve to enhance correlation and strengthen industrial arts education as a force in general education.

SCHOOL SUPPLIES FOR KOREA

More than 9,000,000 men, women, and children are homeless refugees in Korea. Practically every important Korean city is either badly damaged, or has been wholly smashed. Korea's children, as in every country that suffers total war, are the most grievous casualties, the direct victims of communist aggression. Forty per cent of all school buildings in Korea were bombed beyond repair, and many others were left in shambles by retreating troops. To meet this situation the educational leaders of the nation are making valiant efforts. Last year when the school principals protested to South Korea's Minister of Education, Dr. George Paik, that there were no school buildings, he replied, "Start schools out of doors, hold classes in river beds, on mountain sides, anywhere!" The teachers took his order literally, and began to open schools in fields, on mountain sides, in any place that children could gather out of reach, for a moment, of the guns that wrought destruction on every side. When the teachers raised the question, "What shall we do for books?" they were told: "Teach from life." And again students began to flock to classes in geography, math, English, science, art, and civics—without a book from which to study, or a pencil with which to write. The Unified Command in Korea has asked American relief agencies to provide 20,000,000 pounds of relief materials to be moved by the Army, but cash contributions are needed to pay the costs of collecting, processing, handling, and shipping in this country. Many schools of the nation are assisting in this most worthy relief cause. Cash contributions should be sent to the Save the Children Federation Headquarters Office, 80 Eighth Avenue, New York 11, New York, and contributions of used clothing, or other relief supplies, by prepaid parcel post, express or freight, to the SCF Warehouse, 2331-12th Avenue, New York, New York.

High School Dramatics Without "Going Hollywood"

BURTON D. FILUT

I. The Problem

A. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The problem of educational dramatics in high school, *versus* the professional stage, arises when the school attempts to imitate commercial theatricals. Objectives of professional drama are so far removed from those of the secondary school theater, that the "Hollywood" approach defeats the purpose of education.

B. ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM

1. *Student Misdirection:* The problem as it exists in many educational institutions, is one of tradition and misdirection by instructors. Misinformed students insist on an annual senior class play for example, the cast for which is usually chosen without regard for their interest in the art as such, or without consideration for previous training in the theater. This attitude and lack of knowledge has largely been due to an absence of a course in drama in the curriculum. The absence of a course arises from the lack of trained instructors or the pressure of tradition which favors the "class play" over a departmental performance. To add to this traditional stalemate, the proceeds from the annual class or student body plays, usually go into a general school fund, from which all other school activities draw; or play profits are literally eaten up at a party for the cast and crew, without contributing to the development of dramatic art in the school. Yet the drama department or the group presenting the plays is often in need of stage equipment, make-up, lighting, and scenery. Furthermore, there is a belief among students and some educators, that popularity and talent

Burton D. Filut, of Eugene, Oregon, has taught dramatics eight years—four years as an extracurricular activity and four years as a class.

alone is needed to get into major productions. No thought is given to co-operation, interest, and other educational objectives.

2. *Community Expectations*: This same supposition that secondary school dramatics is a steppingstone to Hollywood, arises from parents in the community. When certain talented students are not permitted to dominate the theatrical spotlight in every stage play of the year, the idea is frowned upon with the remark that not as many people will come to see the performances if the "stars" of the campus are not given leading parts. In keeping with the community's insistence upon copying the commercial stage, it is expected that exhibitionary curtain calls must be a part of every performance, that every play must be a hit on Broadway before being attempted on the school stage, and that every element of the school theater must copy the professional theater to be correct.

3. *Administrative Pressure*: With such pressure by the student body and the parents, many administrators resort to a policy of appeasement, and uphold the traditions of long standing in the community. The desire to have ample financial returns from the productions is often stressed beyond educational benefits. Yet, with all the vital reference to the financial importance of the performances, the drama rehearsals are usually held in small classrooms, without a stage, since the stage itself is in the gymnasium where athletics is competing for time on the schedule.

C. EXTENT OF PROBLEM

1. *Educationally*: An educational problem arises when dramatics in the secondary school takes the form of an extracurricular activity, instead of a class:

a. *As an Extracurricular Activity*: When dramatics is taught as an extracurricular activity, there is a clash with other school clubs and classes. Since the meetings of many drama clubs are held at a time when other clubs are also meeting, there is constant competition for attendance, thus denying the students the privilege of rounding out their personalities by participating in various school activities. Most of the rehearsals are held in the evening under extracurricular dramatics, with the result that parents object to having their children out at night. Yet there is an insistence that certain "prima donnas" be given a part in a play, despite the fact that they do not have enough time to study for their regular academic courses.

b. *As a Class for Credit*: Many of these difficulties could be eliminated by offering a class in dramatics at the high-school level. Then class time could be used for studying all phases of the art, and

for rehearsals after plays are cast. Profits derived from the productions could be used for buying equipment needed by the class. Participation in drama would then be open to all age levels on the basis of talent, interest, and need, rather than upon year in school only.

2. *Professionally*: As in the commercial theater, students will be continually exploited by the school for mercenary gain, by the parents for social gain, by teachers for professional recognition, and by the exhibitionary antics of the students themselves, unless something is done to keep dramatics on an educational basis. Money, talent, popularity, and other aims of Broadway and Hollywood are not the purposes of education. The student should be the participant in the physical, mental, and social expression that dramatics affords, rather than the exploited guinea pig.

D. IMPORTANCE OF PROBLEM

1. *To the Students*:

a. *Physically*: The adolescent undergoes a great many changes. The rapidity of bodily growth which results in awkwardness and lack of co-ordination, requires training for ease and grace of movement. Since acting and other speech activities are primarily bodily in outward expression, dramatics, as a means to educational ends, is justifiable at the adolescent level.

b. *Mentally*: The mental characteristics of adolescence include: self-assertion, characterized by aggressiveness, argumentation, and revolt against authority. It is these mental characteristics that have to find outlets in dramatics. Therefore, training in the beauty and quickness of response in voice and speech, the taste for the theater and knowledge of it, are all means to an end through the educational theater.

c. *Emotionally*: Emotions are more rampant during adolescence than at any other stage of human development. There is an increase in the scope and intensity of emotional responses; emotions are easily aroused and hard to control; emotional sensitivity is increased; self-consciousness is a problem of the growing high-school boy and girl. Yet, their enthusiasm, hero worship, love for artistic creation, and need for emotional outlets can find expression in dramatic expression, if it is to be used for education, rather than for economic gain.

d. *Socially*: These physical, mental, and emotional advantages that drama affords, make it an ideal medium for the social adjustment of the modern adolescent. Personality development through responsibility, co-operation and self-confidence, all make for social

stability in the adolescent gang. Dramatics is primarily a social activity. In all of the other fine arts, one can perform or work alone: the poet can go off by himself in the woods; the painter can be alone in creating a masterpiece; the musician can play long hours in a lonely attic; but the student of drama must work with others in order to produce a finished product. The service of the drama student to himself and the community can only come about if he is taught to work with others.

2. *To the School:* The use of dramatics for educational gain is very stimulating. Besides providing the rest of the student body with entertainment by local talent, other subjects in school can be portrayed dramatically by the dramatics group or class. Such subjects as history, literature, art, and athletics can be included in the dramatic expression and portrayal by members of the drama class. In this way we can say that any idea that can be demonstrated by the use of the human voice and body is a kind of audio-visual aid to learning. With this in mind, the drama class or group could make itself available to the school through school assemblies, holiday programs, pep rally skits, and public performances.

3. *To the Community:* Educational dramatics should be a social service. It should make the students of drama better citizens because they have the opportunity of developing more poise, social integration, and co-operation, all of which are of value and in evidence long after the curtain falls. Indirectly, the proper use of their leisure time, their enjoyment of and participation in wholesome entertainment, and their emotional expression through dramatics, make them better citizens of the community.

II. Attempt at a Solution to the Problem

A. STATEMENT OF REASONS FOR EDUCATIONAL APPROACH

The purpose of dramatics in education should be to provide an aesthetic medium of expression for students who have *talent* in any of the many arts and crafts of the theater, and who desire to work in this field to express themselves. It should be available to those who show an *interest* in any phase of work connected with dramatic art. And finally, educational dramatics should be provided for those students who need emotional expression and control in order to develop into wholesome and mature personalities.

1. *Talent:* The talent of the student of drama ought to be based on his ability to work in any of the many arts and crafts of the theater. These arts and crafts might be enumerated to include such things as scenic design and construction, costuming, make-up, sound effects,

lighting, directing, and acting. Talent includes as well, the ability to function in a business-like way, presiding at meetings of the group, writing minutes, handling the finances, corresponding with firms and individuals, and buying equipment for the dramatics class. With all the arts, crafts, and talents necessary to the success of a good dramatic production, it would be limiting the field of educational drama to stress any one of these and ignore the rest. If the selection of members of a cast is to be based on acting ability alone, then school dramatics is put on the same basis as the professional radio stage and screen, where the profit motive, selfish competition, and personal glory, are all rampant on a highly commercialized scale. It is not the purpose of the school to gain profit, nor to seek publicity of any individual. High-school dramatics, as any other school activity or sport should be a medium in which a group can co-operate for the mutual benefit and enjoyment of those taking part, rather than for exhibitionary social, political, or mercenary reasons. If the casting of a play is based on popularity, beauty, year in school, or ability alone, then the objectives of dramatics as an educational medium are no longer present and cannot be adhered to because of the selfish desires and traditional limitations that stand in the way of intellectual progress. The school theater should be organized for the expression of aesthetic talent, technical skill, and leadership ability; for the development of personality; to make students realize the need for co-operation, responsibility, and hard work.

2. *Need:* Another purpose of the school theater is to provide a medium of expression for those who need it. This need is not limited to being indispensable to a group, a school, or a community as an actor, but a need for a participant to learn to get along with others, to co-operate for the common good, and to learn promptness and accuracy in order to present a play. But the play is not an end in itself; rather, it is a means to an end. The things learned, the habits developed, and the ideals attained, are the real purposes in educational dramatic production.

3. *Interest:* There must also be an interest—an interest not in self, but in group performance; an interest and desire to present a play as a unit, not a craving for personal attention. Such an interest is not sincere if it does not include a desire to start working at the beginning of a year of dramatic work, a desire to learn all phases of the theater, to give up other activities, to concentrate on dramatics which demands much time and effort, to volunteer to assist in the many details of the theatrical production, to continue to work and co-operate willingly to create beauty for the appreciation and enjoyment of an audience.

B. A COURSE OF STUDY IN DRAMATICS

A course in all phases of dramatic art ought to be open to all students. One year's work, would follow this general outline:

1. *Purpose of Course:*a. *General Objectives:*

- 1 - Personality Development: emotionally, socially
- 2 - Aesthetic Expression in all phases of dramatics
- 3 - Educational Growth, through:
 - a - Talent in any of the dramatic arts
 - b - Interest in all of the dramatic arts
 - c - Need for personality development

b. *Specific Aims:*

- 1 - To learn to work together in dramatic productions
- 2 - To study and learn about all phases of drama
- 3 - To make good use of leisure time

c. *Desired Policies:*

- 1 - No publicity of:
 - a - Name of one student as being in a play
 - b - Picture of one member of a cast
 - c - Any individual's performance in a play
- 2 - No Exhibitionism:
 - a - No individual performances
 - b - No appearance of a performer off stage in costume or make-up
 - c - No curtain calls
- 3 - Faculty Member in Full Charge:
 - a - No contests in dramatics
 - b - Every student to contribute to a production
 - c - Plays, casts, and crews chosen by director
 - d - Class members admitted by instructor only

2. *Content of Course:*a. *General Study:*

- 1 - Brief history of drama
- 2 - Some types of drama
- 3 - Dramatic criticism and enjoyment
- 4 - Stage technique

b. *Specific Training:*

- 1 - Lighting
- 2 - Costuming
- 3 - Make-up
- 4 - Scenery

3. *Activities of Class:*a. *Field Trips to:*

- 1 - Adult Performances
- 2 - Plays by other high schools
- 3 - Selected screen plays

b. *Workshops in:*

- 1 - Lighting
- 2 - Costuming
- 3 - Make-up
- 4 - Scenery

c. *Productions:*

- 1 - Assembly skits
- 2 - One-act plays
- 3 - Three-act plays

III. Predicting Outcome of Attempt at a Solution to the Problem

A. PREPARATION FOR INTRODUCING THE PROPOSED PLAN

The nature, extent, and importance of the problem of making high-school dramatics educational, having been outlined, and a course of study, having been proposed, the next step is to outline the approach to conditions as they exist in many schools and communities.

1. *Dealing with Traditions:* First the drama instructor has to face existing traditions in the school and community. If it has been the practice to have an annual all-school play, those from last year's cast and crew might be invited to a special meeting at which others interested in drama would attend. At this gathering problems that arose in previous years could be brought up by both the teacher and the students. Among the obvious problems that should come up by those who have participated in or directed extracurricular dramatics are: night rehearsals, exclusive nature of a class play cast, limited finances, imposition upon other departments for scenery, costumes, and advertising. After these problems are brought out by the students themselves, the instructor might point out that the organization of a class will eliminate many of the problems arising from extracurricular dramatics. If both seniors and juniors insist upon a play, a plan might be worked out whereby those upper classmen who are interested in play production could join the class and assist each other in producing their own plays during different times of the year. And since all students are invited to join the class, freshmen, sophomores, and juniors of the class could unite to produce an "all-student" play, which would get support from the entire student body since all would be represented in the drama class. The advantages of having dramatics in a class soon become obvious to students, parents, and administrators.

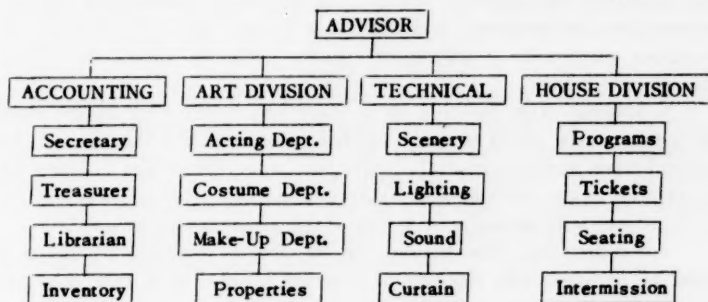
2. *Obtaining Supplies and Equipment:* Being a separate unit, the class as such must be self-supporting. The income from public performances can be increased by minimizing the cost of scripts, royalties, and costumes only if the members of the class are well-trained in all phases of the art so that they can make their own posters, tickets, programs, scenery, costumes, and sound effects if needed. Where general school funds do not support a dramatics program, the class can take advantage of intermission refreshments to realize an additional return. Thus it can be seen that the financial returns must be saved for more equipment for the class, which can grow in material wealth and student experience from year to year.

B. DETAILS OF APPLYING THE PROPOSED PLAN

1. *Admission to Class:* Admission to the class in dramatics should be based on the talent, interest, and educational need of those applying.

An application blank might be prepared indicating particular interests and abilities. While these special skills are indicated, the student must be informed that he or she will be expected to study all phases of the work, so as to obtain a broad appreciation of drama, rather than take the class merely for exhibitionism as an actor only.

2. *Organization:* For effective operation and to give every member of the class a specific duty, an organization chart is suggested below:



3. *Play Selection:* The selection of plays should be determined by the instructor. Consideration should be given to their suitability technically, educationally, and recreationally. Whether they are technically possible will be determined by the limitations of the school stage, extent of the budget, and in keeping with the director's experience and the ability of the students. The educational appropriateness of the plays to be given should be dictated by their literary merit, imaginative appeal, the emotional comprehension of the students, and in keeping with their acting ability. The recreational adequacy of the plays selected ought to be in line with the interests and tastes of the school and community.

4. *Casting:* The talent, interest, and need of the students will again be the guiding factors in casting. Talents to be considered might include such things as vocal and bodily expression, emotional sensitivity, imagination, mental capacity, and aesthetic keenness. The interest of the students trying out for the part will be determined by their adaptability to acting, their willingness to work hard, and their ability to co-operate with one another. Their educational need can be decided by the benefits that they can derive from being in a play. Thus casting in the school theater is aimed at the benefits to the students, rather than at the financial returns possible.

5. *Rehearsals:* Most play rehearsals can be held during class time. Suggested procedure is as follows: First the entire class should know

the story of the play, its theme, plot, *etc.* Then every member of the class should be given a duty to perform, whether it be acting, in the technical division, business end, or as part of the house committee. These assignments should be announced all at the same time. Next, a complete schedule of rehearsals and work periods should be made out, up to the time of the performance. A post-performance schedule for stage clean-up, return of tickets, *etc.*, should also be made known at this time, so the students realize that dramatic productions include preparation, performance, and the often-ignored task of finishing the business afterwards. Adherence to this schedule should be strict, regular, and prompt.

6. *Staging*: The building of scenery and lighting facilities must be a part of the class project, so that interest in the theater will be all-inclusive and educational, rather than specialized and commercial in nature. Scene shifting and lighting rehearsals with and without the cast present will naturally be a part of the all-inclusive schedule.

7. *Advertising*: The playing up of certain members of the cast must be avoided, and pictures of only one member of a cast must not be permitted. Stress instead ought to be put on the story of the play, its title, background, theme, the fact that it is the result of group effort and represents a certain phase of the work done by the class.

8. *Performances*: Performances should be planned as to their backstage procedure. Make-up should be applied by the students who by this time should have been trained to do it. In general, by curtain time, those taking part in all phases of the production should be so self-reliant that the director can see his own performance from a seat in the audience.

9. *Use of Proceeds*: Financial returns from the play ought to be used for those items of equipment which will build up the department of drama or educate the members of the class. Suggested expenditures might include trips to see other plays, equipment, and supplies, payment of royalties for good plays, reading scripts, and other things to make dramatics of benefit to those taking part. The distribution of funds for equipment should follow a plan similar to this: lighting 50%; scenery 25%; paint 15%; make-up 10%.

C. EXPECTED ACCEPTANCE OF PLAN

1. *For the Plan*: The certainty that some aspect will be accepted is sure. The course in drama seems to be an improvement over dramatics as an extracurricular activity, in the writer's experience. With a class, no evening rehearsals are necessary; the exclusive nature of the club plan is eliminated; students joining the class are sincerely

interested in all phases of drama; and those taking part in the dramatic productions of a class have already decided that they must devote all their time to play production, and not divide their time among several extracurricular activities.

2. *Against the Plan:* Factors in the dramatics class on the high-school level, which might meet with opposition, are several in number. The fact that many boys will have to choose between athletics and dramatics, might bring a protest. Girls who are also cheer leaders and drum majorettes, may not be able to get drama in their schedule and thereby be denied another medium of expression. Seniors and juniors will have to work with and co-operate with sophomores and freshmen.

3. *Notwithstanding:* Despite the elements for or against the plan, the objectives are plain: student personality development, community recreation, and a personal satisfaction that a teacher is an educator and not a Hollywood producer. It is far more noble and more in keeping with educational purposes to teach high-school dramatics the hard way—in a regular class included in the curriculum.

NROTC SCHOLARSHIPS FOR SCHOOL YEAR

The Navy is soon to begin its sixth annual nationwide program of officer selection and training. During the past year approximately two thousand young men were chosen to enter the Naval Reserve Officers Training Corps units in 52 American Colleges, and about the same number will be selected during the academic school year, 1952-1953. Announcements about the program are being sent to all schools and colleges in the United States and Territories. This, the largest single college scholarship program in the country, is financed entirely by the Federal government. In the program, the winners are selected on a merit basis. Last year more than 32,000 applicants took the Navy College Aptitude Test, first step in the selection process. The test will be given this year on December 8. Applications from civilian candidates must be in their hands by November 17. On the basis of test scores, finalists are certified to the Navy recruiting stations for physical examinations and interviews. State selection boards, each of which is composed of a senior naval officer, an educator, and a third member from business or industry, study all of the records of the finalists—test scores, interview ratings, school records, and recommendations—and select the winners. A bulletin of information giving complete details concerning the program and methods of selection can be secured by writing the Naval Examining Section, Educational Testing Service, P. O. Box 709, Princeton, New Jersey.

The First Fundamental

JESSIE PARRY

"FREEDOM is everybody's job." How often have these words reached the eyes and ears of millions of us only to glance off quickly. They are strangely unlike those of Jefferson which went straight into the hearts of the colonists, and, like the "fiery missiles" he meant them to be, set the cause of freedom burning there. How ineffectual they are compared to Lincoln's skillfully worded thoughts that drew out the last full measure of devotion to the cause of freedom. Indeed, these words might even have the opposite effect. "What is everybody's business is nobody's business."

When, however, this slogan is kept constantly before us, as it is today, one may finally find himself in that mass called "everybody" and the job, then, becomes for him a personal one as it is for each judge, jurymen, merchant, maid, artist, ambassador, landlord, legislator, poet, philosopher, business man, bus-driver, sales girl, social worker, teacher, preacher, and so on to the last classification of people.

Just what, then, is each one's job? Freedom is a big, inclusive word, ranging from the right of each to be his own real self to fullness of life in a democratic society. Widely differing circumstances determine what people can do. Clearly, then, each must narrow his vision down to his own circumstances to see just what his job is.

By this narrowing process, let us focus our eyes on the job of freedom as it may be seen through a teacher's eyes and in her particular circumstances. In this narrowed field of vision, we perceive it to be the following: to give that freedom which is essential to child development: to develop appreciation of the things all Americans have, in common, as, "the rocks, the rills, the wooded hills" which make America beautiful as well as resourceful; to contrive concrete schoolroom experiences through which our great principles of democracy may be better understood; and to break down stereotyped ways of thinking that may obstruct freedom.

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With the job thus defined, I entered the school year of 1950-1951 hoping to do my part for freedom in that year when men were destined to die for it. On looking back, now that the year is over, what actually was accomplished appears very small compared with the desire to accomplish, but I shall share the experiences that one class had, so that the reader may see that where there is more thought of freedom, there is more freedom of thought, and events may take a turn that they otherwise might not have taken.

EXPERIENCES IN FREEDOM

In April my home-room group, a 7 A class, was making an interesting study of lumber under the direction of their geography instructor, Walter Beckman. Each had written a letter to a lumber company, a builders' supply company, or a government agency, and, in response, letters and packages were arriving, causing flutters of excitement. The class had visited a lumber yard and were anticipating a trip to a builders' supply company. Under the direction of their manual training instructor, boys were making useful household articles out of wood, and in the geography classroom boys and girls were starting to write reports and make graphs, charts, and diagrams to share their findings with others in assemblies. In these assemblies, we were invited to join with English activities.

We began, then, to fuse English with geography and manual training. First, we entered a mental gymnasium where we could give our imagination some stretching exercises. We began on John Muir's *The Big Trees*, and climbed a ladder of thought from the base of one majestic tree twenty-five feet in diameter at the ground, "to its grand domed head, soaring above them all, and poised as lightly as a cloud." We made our *Salute to the Trees*, bending low with Henry van Dyke, acknowledging our dependence on trees:

Some for the strength of the gnarled root,
Some for the sweetness of flower or fruit;
Some for the shelter against the storm,
And some to keep the hearthstone warm;
Some for the roof and some for the beam;
And some for a boat to breast the stream;

We stretched up with Joyce Kilmer to the tops of his *Trees*—

A tree that may in Summer wear
a nest of robins in her hair—
A tree that looks at God all day
and lifts its leafy arms to pray.

With Joyce Kilmer, Henry van Dyke, and John Muir, we found there were heights and depths our imaginations could not reach. "Only God can

make a tree." The final solution of our most everyday problems, we saw, rested in the greatness of God. Man can make an oak floor, a pine wall, but by what power of insight, science, or invention has one yet made an acorn or a pine cone?

'Tis a beautiful wonder of life that lifts
From a wrinkled seed in an earth born clod,
A column, an arch in the temple of God,
A pillar of power, a dome of delight,
A shrine of song and a joy of sight.

What presumption for the rulers of a great nation, who, themselves, can not make one grain of wheat, to have closed the doors of their churches to those who would thank God for their daily bread! What foolishness to have thought they could thus separate God from people whom he had created! How wise, on the other hand, were our forefathers to have established Freedom of Worship!

Next we entered the department marked, "History." Here students recalled stories they had learned in the previous year showing how lumbering had assumed importance in our earliest colonial days, and how, as our frontier proceeded, the woodsmen led the way. With this preliminary work done, it was assumed that all might be ready to do some creative writing. It was suggested, that the class write a story called, "Trees for Freedom." Each would write the story in his own way with the teacher selecting the best of each one's writing and composing all into a group story. Part I was to be set in colonial times; Part II, in frontier days; and Part III in present time.

The class went to work. The first period was spent mostly in planning what to say and how to say it; but, by the end of the second period, many eagerly handed their stories in to be read. How like themselves their stories were! Madeline, a girl who knew what it was to fear the future, wrote:

Chop, chop, chop, in rain or shine you hear the axe of freedom. You wonder, "How can an axe bring freedom?" This is how: Long, long ago, in the city of London, people were afraid they would be thrown into prison for not paying their debts. You ask, "Why didn't they pay their debts?" This is why:....

Sally, the oldest girl in a large family, wrote:

One night when Johnny and Deborah were supposed to be fast asleep in their home in London, England, Johnny heard his mother and father talk about moving to the colonies. He jumped out of bed and lay with his ear right next to the crack in the door. He heard his father say, "You and Deborah will have to stay here while Johnny and I go to America. If we can do the work the company wants us to do, we'll make a living there and then you, dear, and Deborah will join us later."

Johnny was glad that no one could see the tears in his eyes. He didn't like the idea of going to America. He would miss his friends sadly. In the morning, when they were packing his clothes, his mother told Johnny all about it. She said, "You have a strong body, and a mighty arm. You can use them to help clear the land, for our cabin and our garden. You'll make new friends, Johnny, and during your spare time you can whittle pieces of wood as much as you like."

"Maybe I can make benches and tables and sell them. Then I could have some new clothes, and pay my way back to England," said Johnny.

Before long Johnny and his father were in the company's wagon heading for the dock. After they had been on the ocean for about three months and were close to land, Johnny took a last look back and said, "Old friends are best."

Monty, an energetic boy who gets up at 4:30 to carry papers, wrote in this crisp fashion:

Log Book

Captain: Monty Herr

Sighted land! Huge forests! Every one, including me, is excited. Landing crew preparing to leave. Landing crew heading for this jungle like territory! Landing crew returned. Brought samples of pine, oak, maple, and cedar. Report no hostile Indians.

Landed!

Men going into this huge forest! I have never seen such trees!

When these three stories, which have been quoted in part, and others were read to the class, Sally's had a wide appeal. In following stories, written by other members of the class, her characters became like real people living in the new world. Johnny became a skillful wood carver, his father worked hard to make the business a success, and finally the long looked for day came when Deborah and Patience arrived. Betty described their arrival in verse:

"From away back in England in the company's boat
Came Patience and Deborah to this land of old oak.
While father and Johnny rowed out for their clothes
Mother and daughter sat huddled up close;
And while they sat there all astound,
They heard Old Ocean give his loud pound.
Then Deborah spoke with trembling words,
'What is this land of the old huge tree
Where Dad and John brought you and me?'"

When a thought was not in line with democratic thinking, the story was read and discussed as was the story in which father said, "When we have cut down that big oak tree, we will have paid the company for bringing us over." This gave an opportunity to discuss father's part and the company's part. We came to the conclusion that unless each did his part faithfully, there could be no freedom from fear or freedom from want and that was what father wanted for his family.

When Part I was written, we turned to "Essentials in English" for a review of the sentence in its various forms, and the use of the adjective and adverb as modifying words; we read, interpreted, and memorized some stanzas of *Snow Bound* which showed how cosy life in a colonial cabin could be contrasted with the terrors of the deep forest; we read, also, a selection from *Rolling Wheels* by Katherine Grey, to get into the spirit of the western movement and then started writing Part II.

The writing for Part II was done with more ease and initiative. Students enjoyed creating characters who spoke frontier language as did Mr. Jennings as is aptly illustrated in the following part of one of the stories:

As Mr. and Mrs. Ephraim Ladd were passing a saw mill, Mr. Jennings, the miller, called out, "Howdy, strangers!" Then Mr. and Mrs. Ladd stopped to talk awhile and found out that the acres they had purchased for a small sum, at the land office, in Vincennes, Indiana, were not far away.

The miller said, "I'm glad you've come. I'll spread the news around and the neighbors will be over to help clear your land and raise your cabin.

Ephraim Ladd said, "I reckon the folks around here were like us; just couldn't pay the price for land back East."

To this Mr. Jennings replied, "I'd be horn swoggled before I'd pay what those land speculators want thar when out har the land is almost free for those who can swing an axe and clear it."

Wandering Uncle Jeff, a character who came to life in one of the stories, was so much enjoyed that others worked him into their stories. Parts of four of these appear in the following group story entitled "Uncle Jeff Returns":

The friends and relatives of the Chaney's had gathered in front of the tavern at Blueberry Corners, Indiana. They were waiting for the wagon train from California to come in. Wandering Uncle Jeff was to be on that train, and Jasper Chaney was there to take him home in his wagon.

All of a sudden, some one coming down the road shouted, 'Har they come!' and 'Har they come, Har they come, Har they come,' sounded like little echoes all around. Then 'Thar he is, Thar he is, Thar he is,' one after another shouted as they spied Uncle Jeff in the second wagon.

Soon Uncle Jeff was out and the other passengers got out, too, to stretch and refresh themselves at the tavern.

"Come in, and have a bite to eat, and let's har a little about Californy," Jasper said, cordially, to Uncle Jeff and his friends.

Jasper led the way and soon all were seated and listening to Uncle Jeff.

"Oh! Oh!, I've started Jeff on a gabfest," said Jasper.

"I tell you, you aint seen nothing till you've seen Californy," said Uncle Jeff. "You should see them mountain streams. Why, I used to like to fish by the cool, lazy streams flowing between green banks, round har, but, out thar you reach out your hand and the fish jump in. And the trees! Why that thar tree out thar is a mere seedling."

"Well, we've got bigger ones than that, Uncle Jeff. Round the corner's one as big around as the storekeeper's missus, and that's purty big," said Betsy.

"Ten storekeepers holdin' hands couldn't rech 'round some of 'em out thar," said Uncle Jeff.

"Say, Uncle Jeff, who cuts them thar trees down, Paul Bunyan?" asked Jasper.

"Well, sar, it's fantastic how accurate they fell a tree. One lumber jack chops a notch about two feet deep on one side, and two other jacks on t'other side start sawin', and that thar tree starts fallin' just whar they want it," Jeff explained.

"Say, Uncle Jeff," said Ezra, "tell us about the loggin' business out thar in Californy."

"Well, Ezra, they shove logs down a slide into a river. I tried that slide one day, but I found out 'twasn't meant fur people - ur see - well anyway, I tore my jeans."

"I'd like to know about the milling business out thar in that wonderful country," the miller said.

"Well sar," said Jeff, "the big saws are a buzzin' all the time."

A tall rather well-dressed man rose and spoke then: "I came back East to form a lumber company. We need more mills in California. It takes money to buy big circular saws and other machinery and to pay men for running it."

"I ain't a goin' to risk my hard earned money on any of them thar trees Uncle Jeff tells about," the storekeeper said.

"Well, its free enterprise here, in America, for anyone who has saved his money, and wants to start a little business, but there's always a risk, you know. It's a venture," the man explained.

The miller spoke thoughtfully: "I think I'll sell out here, and go with you."

Then Jasper called, "Come on, now, Uncle Jeff. We're long over due at home. So long, friends, so long!"

When Part II was written, we turned to grammar again. We noted rules that had been broken, and studied their right application. We studied, *America For Me*, by Henry van Dyke, and started memorizing its stanzas to be given in choral verse.

Then, writing for Part III was begun. After some more experimental writing, this part turned out to be an imaginary ceremony in a park where the class had gone on Arbor Day to plant a tree. For this scene some wrote, thoughtfully, of the need of good housing for all and the importance of forest conservation, while others wrote lightly of conversation that might take place as the class walked through the woods. Bill's writing was of the latter. The following is a part of what he wrote in his composition:

Pat: Listen, sounds like a hornet!

Gloria: Couldn't be a hornet. Never saw a hornet's nest in a park.

Joe: You funny! Don't you know a humming bird when you hear one?

Pat (trying to cover up): These woods are lovely. I'm glad Fort Wayne has so many parks where we can enjoy nature!

The poem, *Trees*, by Joyce Kilmer, was memorized to be given with Part III. As fullness of life in a democratic society consists of taking responsibility for group success as well as enjoying the right of self expression, it was important that each should feel his effort to do his part was appreciated. To this end, an attempt was made to include all in the group stories. A few, however, whose writing could not be worked in well, willingly accepted other parts in the program such as solo parts in choral verse or special responsibilities in introducing parts.

When the group stories were composed, the class was divided into three parts, each student being assigned to that part of the story for which he had done his best writing. Students whose work in narration, or in oral interpretation of poetry, had given most enjoyment to the class were put in charge of each division. They assigned parts to each in their groups and aided them in oral interpretation and memorization of their parts. With a little practice the story and choral verse could be given in less than twenty minutes, each one stepping to the microphone to say his part.

The program on Lumber, of which our story was a part, was presented to three assemblies, one being an evening affair. For this meeting one boy did not return. He was a self-effacing lad. Did he feel that his part would not be missed? If so, circumstances proved beyond a doubt that he was wrong. His little part he found, much to his satisfaction, was important.

CONCLUSION

"All the world's a stage." Today curtains are down on one part of this stage, while they are wide open on another. It is into this wide open part that all eyes are looking to see the story of freedom acted out. Most of us are in the great chorus where the part we play seems infinitesimal, but have you ever watched the chorus of grand opera? Is it not the harmony in which the great crowd acts coupled with little individual differences in facial expression and gesture that make the chorus so vital and charming a part of the whole production? No part can be too small in the story of human freedom.

Our good forefathers finally got around to establishing the public school where every little child could learn his three Rs. Until then, each stroke of the axe that helped to clear the land, and build cabins for free people was fundamental.

Today, then, as seen through the eyes of a teacher, the first fundamental is a condition in which all are growing to be free-thinking, resourceful, appreciative Americans.

Vacation Contributes to Moral and Spiritual Values

MABEL M. RIEDINGER

NOW that the new school year is safely started and each teacher of the language arts has exhausted every vacation trip and camp experience as a source of inspiration for oral and written composition, are their sources of educational materials yet untapped in the summer recreation programs that youth and their leaders developed a few short weeks ago? What do taxpayers and parents get for the money they invest in playground and camping opportunities for youth? Those teachers who worked on playgrounds during the summer—what did they do to earn their pay? Of course they kept youth from getting hurt as seriously and as often as they might have been injured without supervision; of course they kept the usual arguments from growing into dangerous fights. But did they do anything constructive? After all, a summer playground is just a place to play, isn't it?

Much emphasis is being placed just now upon the importance of moral and spiritual values in the school program. Perhaps the school should consider carrying forward those emphases recently prominent in the consciousness of youth through their camping and playground participation.

Americans need to learn to relax, to play, to have fun. And those are skills one must learn. We are not born with the knowledge of how to play. Too many of us never learn—or forget all too quickly. Our frightening incidence of "nervous breakdowns," the great numbers of our citizens who develop peptic ulcers, allergies, chronic sinus irritations, and other physical ailments related to tension are ample evidence of our need to gain skill in the art of relaxation. Our discouraging inability to enjoy ourselves outside commercialized schemes for entertainment testifies to the paucity of our play resources. We have lost the spirit of simple fun that so clearly characterized our pioneer an-

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cestors. Recreation specialists can render us no greater service than to teach us as citizens in an industrial society to invent our own play, to make our own fun, to develop skill in techniques of relaxation. Our school teachers must increase their resourcefulness in fostering the development of these skills.

Playground and camping programs teach participants some skills and give them some experiences which contribute to self-reliance, another frontier virtue almost lost in our technological society. Certainly and rightly, we stress co-operative effort as an essential characteristic of our way of life. Nevertheless, mental health, a proper self-esteem, requires some sense of self-confidence rooted in skill in taking care of oneself in a variety of situations, in ability to *do* things.

A counterpart of emphasis upon independence is, of course, skill in enjoying things with other people. People must be taught to enjoy sharing, to enjoy working together with others, playing together, being together. Nursery-school, kindergarten, and primary-school programs are charged with responsibility for teaching our only children, our children isolated in small apartment-bound families, to enjoy co-operation with others. The beginnings made by these agencies of society are greatly strengthened and developed through good recreation programs.

Informal recreation activities provide an excellent opportunity for learning to be just, to be fair, to be generous, to practice the out-of-fashion courtesy of deference to others. It is good democratic technique to alternate the role of follower with the role of leader. Many recreational activities stress experiences in assuming a variety of roles. Classroom theories expounded at teachers' institutes stress, also, the importance of experience in both leading and following. Teachers would do well to give increased effort to fostering at school the standards of justice and fairness and deference required of the "good sport" on playing fields.

We are beginning to understand what Rabbi Liebman told us so powerfully in his great book, *Peace of Mind*, that respect for others is dependent upon self-esteem. The man who dislikes himself cannot love his neighbor; the man who holds himself of little worth is incapable of devotion to preserving civil rights or human dignity. This is an extremely important psychological fact for educators to understand as they formulate programs for the development of moral and spiritual values as they strengthen American democracy. Children on well-supervised playgrounds learn to respect themselves; they learn skills; they achieve recognition through crafts and games and participation. They learn the joy of achieving without desire to lessen another's award. As others give them appreciation and recognition for skill displayed, for accomplishment evident, they learn to give appreciation

without jealousy, a skill highly important in our democratic society, an attitude teachers and schools must learn to develop and strengthen. Democracy has no greater enemy than jealous desire to destroy that which another man has created.

Recreation programs exist for the purpose of contributing to both community and individual health and strength. Too many times people think in terms of physical health exclusively. A good recreation program is fully as important to mental and spiritual health as it is to physical health. Perhaps a better way to state the matter is that spiritual and mental strength are fully as much a part of a good recreation program as is physical development.

These emphases which have been prominent in the vacation experiences of many school youth and in the summer experiences of their teachers who have held positions of responsibility and leadership in recreation activities may well provide a firm and established foundation upon which schools build their programs for strengthening moral and spiritual values in American life. Self-confidence, self-appreciation, respect and regard for others, ability to enjoy and to enjoy together, ability to appreciate aesthetic values in athletic skill or bodily movement as well as in bird songs and growing wild flowers, appreciation of creative skill and artistry, ability to receive praise without boasting and to give praise without jealousy, ability to relax and play and have fun—these are virtues well worth conserving as a step along the way to greater moral and spiritual strength among Americans.

NO FALSE ALARM!

It was 7:30 the night of June 21st in the Town Hall of Whitman, Massachusetts. A special town meeting had been called to take action on new school buildings, estimated cost set at \$919,000 and likely to be more than a million dollars before all bills are paid. The School Building Study Committee had worked long months determining the school needs and selecting sites for the proposed buildings. Two newspapers serving the local area, the *Whitman Times* and the *Brockton Daily Enterprise* had given wholehearted co-operation in publicizing the town's educational needs. But a vote on the issue could not be taken because a quorum of 400 had failed to show up at the town meeting. One of the interested citizens who did show up was the Whitman fire chief. While the chairman of the meeting conducted a question-answering session on the proposed buildings, the fire chief ordered a fire alarm rung from Box 125. That drew out Whitman citizens. Once in the vicinity of Town Hall to answer the false alarm, they were willing to attend the special town meeting. A quorum of 403 had assembled by 8:45 and voted the \$919,000 for their schools that evening. It wasn't a false alarm after all! — *Citizens and Their Schools*, September 1951.

The Book Column

PROFESSIONAL BOOKS

FAUNCE, R. C., and BOSSING, N. L. *Developing the Core Curriculum*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1951. 319 pp. \$3.75. It is the purpose of this book to bring together and present in extended form some of the results of the rich experience of many who have successfully experimented with the Core Curriculum. The information and suggestions gleaned from many sources and shared in this book should prove of inestimable value to administrators who wish to introduce the Core Curriculum into their schools and to the alert teachers who desire to create more vital and effective learning situations for their pupils. They should also prove useful to the educational aspirant in training who wishes to become informed on the basic principles underlying the Core Curriculum concept, and on practical methods for its effective use in the school and classroom. The first five chapters of the book present the definition and underlying educational basis of the Core Curriculum within our democratic society. The remaining chapters are devoted to the implementation of the Core Curriculum within the community, the school, and the classroom. Many practical suggestions with a wealth of illustrations from many sources have been given in the hope that the experiences of others may offer helpful suggestions to the administrator and the classroom teacher.

FUHRINGER, JOSEPH. *The Economic and Political Principles of Evolutionary Democracy*. Boston: Christopher Publishing House. 1951. 72 pp. \$1.75. The author develops and defines the principles of Evolutionary Democracy so that all can understand its blessings. The following table of contents shows the extent and scope of the author's research and study: The Origin of Life on Earth, The Secret or Function of the Mind, Man—the Abnormal Animal, Origin and Evolution of Intellect, The Origin and Evolution of Stages, America Amended, The Power of the American People, A Message to the American Indian, and A Message to the American Negro.

HARDY, E. A., Chairman, and COCHRANE, H. M., editor. *Centennial Story of the Board of Education of Toronto*. Toronto, Canada: Board of Education of the City of Toronto. 1950. 318 pp. This book is the story of the Board of Education of Toronto covering the first one hundred years of progress, 1850-1950, from a small city with no school building owned by the city, to its few teachers and an inadequate and uncertain budget and then to its present conditions of fine buildings, good equipment and playgrounds, large staff and a large budget. It is a story of how the school boards of these hundred years developed a school system through actual practice, using the energies and talents, and faithful service of some hundreds of men and women as trustees, along with some thousands of teachers and non-teaching staff.

- KEILER, M. L. *Art in the Schoolroom*. Lincoln 8: University of Nebraska Press. 1951. 225 pp. \$4.00. This book has been written as a guide for public school teachers, to help them with their daily task. It is based on the belief that children possess a unique creative power, which will grow in stature through constant stimulation. It was written out of the conviction that the most important part of art education is NOT the manipulation process, but its power to develop the child's understanding of, and positive attitude toward, the world around him. The form in which the individual assignments are presented should be understood only as guiding examples, and are not expected to be followed literally. Technical information is kept at a minimum. The chapters included are: Chapter 1, Art Education—What Is It?, Chapter 2, Getting Acquainted Projects, Chapter 3, Suggested Assignments, Chapter 4, Group Projects, Chapter 5, Three-dimensional projects, Chapter 6, Holiday Projects.
- KIRK, S. A., and JOHNSON, KIRK. *Educating the Retarded Child*. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Co. 1951. 446 pp. \$3.00. The purpose of this book is to (1) present information from various sources, (2) synthesize the materials into a meaningful sequence, (3) develop programs of rehabilitation and instruction for retarded children, and (4) describe the teaching procedures used with them. It has been written for students, teachers, supervisors, administrators, psychologists, and others interested in the problems of children who are retarded in intelligence. It is designed to present a comprehensive description of the problem with suggested methods for its solution. Throughout the book an effort has been made to include both theory and practice.
- MEHRENS, H. E., editor. *Adventures in Aviation Education*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1785 Massachusetts Ave., N.W. 1951. 415 pp. \$3.50. The reports published in this book deal with only one of the areas of aviation education which the Civil Aeronautics Administration serves. Although its role in vocational and professional aeronautics is easily recognized, the CAA's interest in general education may not be so readily understood. In general education, as well as in special education, the Civil Aeronautics Administration serves those schools requesting demonstrations of its facilities and information about current developments in aviation. Each report attempts to set forth a way of meeting the challenge to education made by aviation in a changing world. These reports of actual classroom situations affected both those that aid and those that hinder the attainment of educational goals. The reports show the importance of community co-operation and understanding. They re-emphasize that to meet fully the challenge of modern life the schools must make intelligent use of the services provided by forward-looking civic, industrial and governmental groups.
- SANFORD, C. W.; HAND, H. C.; and SPALDING, W. B., editors. *The Schools and National Security*. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1951. 310 pp. \$3.00. This book, an outgrowth of a statewide project under the auspices of the office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of Illinois, and edited by three University of Illinois educators, is a compilation of the recommendations of some 2,500 persons for a school security program. In preparing this book, they first sought estimates of the nature, size, and requirements of the national security situation and of the likely con-

sequences of the measures which probably must be taken. Submitted by state and national authorities, these estimates of the military, industrial and agricultural production, manpower, medical, economic and social welfare, civil defense, and psychological and related aspects of national security were then turned over to these educators to determine the implications for education in the areas of its fundamental role, instructional and guidance programs, school administration, and school-community relations. Reports from both groups were subsequently referred to a third panel of more than 130 specially qualified members which, working in small groups, prepared a "trial" copy of a proposed national security program for the schools covering every principal facet of the school activities—subject areas, the guidance program, health service, adult education work, preparation for disaster control, and public relations. This "trial" copy was printed and submitted for criticism to 2,000 selected Illinois school administrators, teachers, school board members, and others, and to a half-dozen or so groups of high-school pupils. Criticism and recommendations of the expanded group were incorporated by the editors into the final draft of the book.

- WHEATLEY, G. M., and HALLOCK, G. T. *Health Observation of School Children*. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1951. 509 pp. \$4.75. As a guide to a better understanding of the health of children of school age, this volume presents background information on health and disease to aid in the interpretation of day-by-day observation. Its primary purpose is to give teachers and others the physiological and psychological reasons for the changes that may be observed in the appearance and activity of school children. It has been designed to furnish the knowledge necessary for an understanding of the mechanisms which operate to produce good health on the one hand, and the signs and symptoms of illness on the other.

BOOKS FOR PUPIL AND TEACHER USE

- ASCH, SHOLEM. *Moses*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1951. 505 pp. \$3.75. This is a novel based on the life of Moses. We see Moses as a young prince in Pharaoh's Court; we see him as a married man tending the flocks of his father-in-law Jethro; we watch him, though fearful of his mission of leading his people out of bondage, growing in strength and wisdom. It is an inspiring and interesting story in which the author has translated an historical epoch into living drama.
- BAILARD, VIRGINIA, and STRANG, RUTH. *Ways to Improve Your Personality*. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc. 1951. 249 pp. \$3.00. All of us have run into difficult situations at home, at school, or in social life. Most of these problems are not unique, but common to all, and therefore, a frank discussion is bound to be helpful. This book presents these problems from the viewpoint of young people and gives specific information on how to solve them. Action rather than talk is emphasized and real cases of teen-age boys and girls appear throughout the book. At the end of each chapter are self-rating scales to help the reader keep track of his or her individual progress.

BARD, HARRY, and MANAKEE, H. S. *Active Citizenship*. Philadelphia 7:

J. C. Winston Co. 1951. 510 pp. \$3.44. This civics textbook for junior high-school students presents the numerous problems of present-day life with the idea of giving these pupils background materials and an appreciation of present-day problems so that they may, as a result, become aware of the necessity of participation in community and national affairs in order to be a good citizen. Believing that good citizenship begins with the individual person, the authors have developed chapters around the individual, his family, school, club, and community. The book has four main divisions or units: "Living with Yourself and Those Around You," "Living a Full and Long Life," "Concern for Others," and "Your Government in Action." Each unit is further subdivided into chapters with a total of 21 in the book. In addition, the book has an appendix of 38 pages and an index. Likewise, each chapter as an aid to the student has a section entitled "Using Information Gained from This Chapter," which is divided into five parts: Applying Your Knowledge, Relating Your Knowledge of Civics to Other Subjects, Writing Your Own Local Community Civics Book, Discussing Controversial Issues, and Reading for More Ideas (a bibliography).

BELL, KENSIL. *Jersey Rebel*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Co. 1951.

248 pp. \$2.50. When General Howe's Redcoats occupied Philadelphia in 1777, no American Patriot was heavier hearted than fourteen-year-old Jeff Lundy, who lived across the Delaware River in New Jersey, a few miles below the Revolutionary capital. This book, a story based on many little-known facts in this critical period of the Revolutionary War, recounts Jeff Lundy's imaginary, yet quite possible, part in the gallant efforts of the American land and naval forces on the Delaware in 1777. Woven through the swift action of the story are the hampering effects on General Washington of the Conway Cabal, the betrayal of the secret of the stockades, the heroic repulse of the Hessians who attacked Fort Mercer, the action which won LaFayette his command, and the memorable defense of Fort Mifflin.

BROOKS, MILTON, and SCHOCK, A. C. *Trigonometry for Today*. New York

16: Harper and Bros. 1951. 318 pp. \$2.96. This textbook builds, upon the familiar and the known, yet simultaneously it develops a broad foundation for all advanced branches of mathematics. Pupils early realize the relations of trigonometry to arithmetic, algebra, and geometry at the same time that they comprehend its links to future work in analytic geometry and calculus. For example, appropriate arithmetic, algebraic, and geometric topics are reviewed at the time that they are most useful in the proof of identities. The book stresses meaning. Its approach through functions, general angles, and graphs provides meaningful experiences. Trigonometric functions are developed as an application of the basic concept of function in mathematics. Problems and exercises vary in type and range of difficulty. They afford a selection for individual pupil differences, or options if an abbreviated course is desired.

BURT, OLIVE. *Jedediah Smith*. New York 18: Julian Messner, Inc. 1951. 187

pp. \$2.75. This is the saga of a group of fearless men who braved the wilderness to establish the fur trade in the new world. They blazed the trails that led to the opening of the West and dedicated their lives to

the building of a new nation. It is particularly the story of Jedediah Smith, the pathfinder, whose quiet determination and quick thinking made him one of our outstanding mountain men.

- CANOYER, H. G., and VAILE, R. S. *Economics of Income and Consumption*. New York 10: Ronald Press Co. 1951. 355 pp. \$4.50. This college textbook—which has been written to describe and to illustrate, from the viewpoint of the consumer, the simple, unchanging laws of economics—provides the student who has already had an introductory course in the field with clarifying applications and interrelations of economic principles, thus orienting him in the very human economic world in which we all live. The first chapters present basic principles of the economic world in terms of functions and how it is controlled by production, consumption, and income. These chapters lead to a consideration of specialization and exchange and of markets and marketing. These are followed by chapters which relate economic principles to the factor of consumption, and the diverse problems of increasing the consumer income. This approach, which shows the manner in which income is distributed to the various factors of production and how consumer income is used to direct future production, is designed to afford the consumer-student a more useful understanding of economic problems than if the subject were considered from the viewpoint of the producer.
- CROSS, J. K. *Blackadder*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co., Inc. 1951. 223 pp. \$2.50. The sinister sign was up again! The body of a freshly killed adder impaled on a post near the harbor of Lytchett indicated that tonight the dreaded smuggler, Blackadder, had his gang would come ashore to dispose of contraband! Who was Blackadder? Death was the penalty he promised anyone who tried to identify him. Yet that is what two boys, Tom Cathro and Harry de Rohan, determined to do.
- DALY, J. J. *The Song in His Heart*. Philadelphia 7: J. C. Winston Co. 1951. 112 pp. \$3.00. This is the story of the life and times of James A. Bland who composed about 700 songs but copyrighted only 35 of them. It tells of his life in Washington, D. C., in the 1870's; of his becoming the toast of Europe and America in the 1890's, and then of his falling from prominence in his later life, of his death in Philadelphia in 1911, and finally of the discovery of his grave.
- GARST, SHANNON. *Big Foot Wallace of the Texas Rangers*. New York 18: Julian Messner, Inc. 1951. 184 pp. \$2.75. William Big Foot Wallace, Texas Ranger, belonged to the wild, untamed frontier. His story is a Texas story—full of color, action, and flamboyance, Indian raids and scalping, tall tales and exaggeration. Most of all, the story of Big Foot's life is the story of Texas—sprawling, brawling, vibrant with a new growth that is vitally American and vitally alive.
- Grolier Encyclopedia. New York 19: Grolier Society Inc., 2 West 45th St. 1951. 10 vols. (Vol. 1, XXXII + 535 pp; Vol. 2, 509 pp; Vol. 3, 556 pp; Vol. 4, 566 pp; Vol. 5, 534 pp; Vol. 6, 538 pp; Vol. 7, 523 pp; Vol. 8, 579 pp; Vol. 9, 530 pp; and Vol. 10, 475 pp.) \$79.50, less an educational discount of \$10. Prepaid. This is designed to meet the need for a comprehensive but convenient everyday encyclopedia. It enables the reader quickly to secure supplementary information on a wide selection of thousands of subjects. This information is authentic, nontechnical, and

concise. Because of the importance of visual aids in illustrating, dramatizing, and supplementing the printed word, the *Encyclopedia* includes over 9,000 pictures drawn from all over the world.

This is a tried and tested encyclopedia and one with a point of view. Its information is authoritative. Its technical articles are prepared by qualified experts; its biographical facts are seasoned with a few words of evaluation; its historical articles are enlivened by reflection. The set was acquired by The Grolier Society in 1941 and was then known as *Doubleday's Encyclopedia*. It was reprinted for Grolier distribution and met a favorable response. Editorial work was begun at the same time and has continued in increasing degree. The first revised or 1943 edition, still under the Doubleday name, contained changes in hundreds of pages. With increased editorial work, with many new and revised articles, and with important new illustrations, the work first appeared under the publisher's own name as *GROLIER ENCYCLOPEDIA* in 1944. Continued revisions with many new articles and illustrations appear in each ensuing edition.

This *Encyclopedia* has been made and revised from the standpoint of the general reader. A simple and straightforward style has always been the objective. The student will find this work a valuable aid and a supplement to his textbook. The specialist will appreciate it for the light it throws on thousands of important topics lying outside his field of specialization. There are copious references, in connection with many articles, to individual books for further reading, for today no set is large enough to answer every question that the inquiring mind poses.

In the original work, articles were written authoritatively, but usually were unsigned. Marked authentication, even of short articles, is desirable and the editors in increasing degrees are providing signed or initialed articles. Material is submitted to authorities for checking, and for any editing, revising, or rewriting that may prove necessary; entries are sometimes dropped, and new entries are added to answer developing needs. The results of this editorial policy are evident from an inspection of the Contributor List which gives details on over 750 advisory and special editors, authors, artists, revisers, and authenticators. Signatures to articles indicate either that the signer has written the article or that he has checked the article critically and made any desirable or necessary revision of work done previously by the editorial staff or by other writers. Initialing indicates critical checking and approval without change of the work of another.

Material on Latin America was the special concern of the advisory editor for Latin America, A. Curtis Wilgus, assisted by experts in that field. Similarly, Canadian material has been handled by Lawrence J. Burpee, aided by Canadian experts. The events of World War II are chronicled in a long article by the eminent historian, Sidney B. Fay.

In these 10 volumes of a composite total of 5,377 pages, there are more than 28,000 subject entries, arranged in alphabetical order, with illustrations in charts, diagrams, pictures, and tables. Most of the pictures are in black and white; however, some are in color. The page size is $6\frac{1}{2}$ " by $9\frac{1}{2}$ " and each is divided into three columns, thus increasing the ease in reading. The books are beautifully and durably bound so that they will stand the frequent and hard use to which this type of book is

generally subjected. The books can be used profitably by both junior and senior high-school students and also in the upper elementary grades.

HART, W. W. *A First Course in Algebra (Second Edition)*. Boston 16: D. C. Heath and Co. 1951. 399 pp. \$2.24. This text offers a basic course that can be covered in one year. Additional topics and problems are clearly marked, providing a challenging course for superior students. The introduction presents algebra as a vital, interesting, and useful study. Chapter previews are tied in closely with the content of the chapters. Related pictures show men and women working at jobs that require a knowledge of mathematics—demonstrating to students the importance of mathematics in modern science and industry. Throughout the book emphasis is on meaning. The author develops reasons for the various operations, and stresses the meaning and use of formulas. Formulas are introduced in Chapter 1, and their meaning and use is made the unifying core of the book. The abstract algebra, including the first equations, enters as a means of dealing with the formulas; the axioms are used as much as possible. To aid the student in developing skill in solving equations and using formulas, the book is arranged so that as each new abstract skill is learned it is applied to the solving of some form of equation of formula.

———. *A Second Course in Algebra (Second Edition, Enlarged)*. Boston 16: D. C. Heath and Co. 1951. 496 pp. \$2.40. Like *A First Course*, this book maintains the author's principles of sound teaching and an approach geared to the students' actual needs and abilities. The maximum-minimum course is clearly indicated. Language is simple and nontechnical, and the short sentences and short paragraphs are easy to follow. Chapters 1-6 contain a complete review of first-year algebra. The book provides a wealth of material designed to interest boys and girls in present-day applications of mathematics. As in *A First Course*, chapter previews include photographs of various industries with brief descriptions of the work involved to show students the many practical applications of algebra and the vocations in science and industry open to those who have some background in mathematics. An adequate number of well-graded practice examples follow each topic—with additional examples of a more difficult nature for superior students. Reviews are given at the end of each chapter, with cumulative reviews at frequent intervals. Additional chapter tests for use in the evaluation of achievement are given in the back of the book where they will not come to the attention of pupils during the learning process.

IVEY, JR., J. E.; BRELAND, W. W.; and DEMERATH, N. J. Philadelphia 7: J. C. Winston Co. 1951. 320 pp. \$2.56. The book was written to help American communities carry their share of the burden for extending democracy at home and abroad. The book has a simple plot designed to help junior high-school pupils learn the basic process of building good American communities. The plot unfolds with a word picture of how communities grow, what they are made of, and the kinds of communities in which man lives. The villains of the book are the many conditions that keep our communities from being good places in which to live.

KILANDER, H. F. *Nutrition for Health*. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1951. 431 pp. \$3.00. This new text tells the student why he should improve his own diet and how he may do so, at the same time giving him

some understanding of our country's food and nutrition problems. There are 125 illustrations and charts which help to make the material understandable and interesting. Exercises and problems at the ends of chapters correlate the factual material in the chapters with the personal food habits and needs of the student and his family. The text presents the latest information and findings in the nutrition field. Written especially for high-school students, it gives them the scientific knowledge of food and nutrition needed to exercise sound judgment in building good food habits. It develops clear understanding of how to appraise daily food intake to determine its adequacy and how to acquire the habit of selecting a well-balanced diet.

LOW, A. M. *What's The World Coming To?* Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1951. 214 pp. \$3.00. In this book one of Britain's most distinguished scientific minds gives an astonishing and convincing picture of the life that you, your children, and your grandchildren will be living during the next one hundred years. Professor Low, who has had an uncanny faculty for correct predictions in the past, discusses the possibilities of atomic power plants, electronic factories without workers, rockets to the moon, artificial hearts, electronic weapons, new penal codes, and food.

MARX, H. L., editor. *Universal Conscription for Essential Service*. New York 52: H. W. Wilson Co. 1951. 178 pp. \$1.75. "RESOLVED: That all American citizens should be subject to conscription for essential service in time of war"—this is the new National University Extension Association proposition that will be debated by high schools in nearly all of the forty-eight states during the coming academic year. The implications are not only vital to high-school students, but to all citizens. The *pros* and *cons* are in this latest Reference Shelf compilation. The book opens with the background and the steps, many now in effect, that may lead to universal conscription. These include various phases of current measures and universal military training. The first article is the initial quarterly report to President Truman by Charles E. Wilson, Director of Defense Mobilization. The report discusses manpower resources with recommendations falling short of compulsory measures for defense production. This is followed by Mr. Truman's "Policy for Manpower Mobilization" memorandum issued to the heads of all executive departments last January. James B. Conant, Peter F. Drucker, George Fielding Eliot, Fletcher Pratt, and James W. Wadsworth, Jr., are among other well-known leaders whose opinions appear, along with official statements and editorials. The final chapter, "The Role of Women," is self-explanatory. An article by Dorothy C. Stratton, "Our Great Unused Resource—Womanpower," also appears in it.

MEADER, S. W. *Bulldoxer*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1951. 239 pp. \$2.50. Bill Crane, just out of high school and eager for a job, goes on a June fishing trip with his friend, Ducky Davis, to a lake in the Maine wilderness. More important than the bass they catch is the discovery of a "Caterpillar" D2 Tractor, sunk and abandoned in the lake. How Bill locates the owner and buys the machine, how he and Ducky get it out of the water and make it run is a tale that will thrill every mechanically-minded boy. Of still broader interest is the story of Bill's plucky battle to build a contracting business from that modest start.

- NOLAN, J. C. *La Salle and the Grand Enterprise*. New York 18: Julian Messner, Inc. 1951. 178 pp. \$2.75. Robert Cavalier, Sieur de La Salle, first heard of the river on which he was to spend most of his life, from the captain of the ship that was taking him to the New World. "It is called the Mississippi," the captain said. "That is the Indian name for the Indian's river of mystery. The Mississippi—Father of Waters—so big that it seems the parent of all other streams." From that moment La Salle knew that every thing he did in the months and years to follow, would be another step on the journey to the hidden mysterious source of the great river, whose discovery became the dream by which he lived.
- SCHOOR, GENE. *The Jim Thorpe Story*. New York 18: Julian Messner, Inc. 1951. 186 pp. \$2.75. Once in a lifetime a star is born and it shines with such brilliance that nothing can transcend it. Such a star is *Jim Thorpe* who was the greatest football star and all-around athlete of this century. In a recent sports poll he was again named All-Star-All-American. Great athletes come and go, but no one has yet topped Thorpe's records for football, baseball, field, and track. This book is the story of this great hero's life. Jim Thorpe's phenomenal achievement is that he excelled in many different sports and that he continued to play professional ball beyond the age of most men. The story of his life is a spectacular one, filled with all the great sports personalities of the time and with all the thrills and excitement of sports history in the making.
- STEWART, A. B. *Enter David Garrick*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1951. 288 pp. \$3.00. David Garrick as a man and an actor was fascinating, brilliant, lovable. His name today means the birth of modern acting in the eighteenth century. In this biography, the author presents David Garrick delightfully and importantly for readers of all ages. Her study of the man and his times has been a lifetime enthusiasm. She has visited every village and town in England associated with Garrick, from Lichfield to London, gathering data and discovering local records. The book makes good reading, to savor and remember and to enrich all further reading about the great figures of Garrick's England, including Samuel Johnson and Boswell, Peg Woffington, Garrick's own lovely wife Eva Maria, William Hogarth, Henry Fielding, and Fanny Burney.
- STRONG, JOANNA. *A Treasury of the World's Great Myths and Legends*. New York 16: Hart Publishing Co. 1951. 319 pp. \$3.75. Here are the famous endeared tales of old. Here, in these pages, a boy or a girl will find a veritable galaxy of Greek myths, Roman legends, Norse folklore, Arabian tales—stories that have fascinated and enchanted children for generations. Hebrew folktales, Aesop's fables, European folktales, and American folklore complete this great introduction to classical literature. Every boy and girl will thrill to the exciting adventures of Ulysses and Sindbad, will chuckle over the pranks of Till Eulenspiegel, will be enthralled by the stories of the Inchcape Rock, Thor and the Giants, and Camillus and the Traitor. And how inspiring is the homely wisdom found in the ancient fables of the Hebrews and the writings of Aesop, the sage.
- TAYLOR, ROSEMARY. *Harem Scare'm*. New York 16: Thomas Y. Crowell Co. 1951. 246 pp. \$3.00. In *Harem Scare'm* the author draws upon her own hilarious experiences as a young, naive postgraduate traveling in big, bad Europe of the early twenties. Now settled down to the relatively

peaceful occupation of housewife in Tucson, Arizona, she reports that efficient can openers and frozen food have proven a decided boon in allowing her to fill the double role of successful author and homemaker.

United States Government Organization Manual. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1951. 731 pp. \$1.00. As the official organization handbook of the Federal government, this manual contains sections on the legislative, judicial, and executive branches, including the emergency agencies established for defense mobilization, quasi-official agencies, and 26 international organizations also. The descriptive material outlines the legislative authority, purpose, functions, and activities of each agency and lists its major officials and the address and telephone number of its headquarters office. Thirty-nine charts show the organization of Congress, the executive departments, and the larger independent agencies as of July 1, 1951. Included for ready reference are a subject index, an index of government officials, a section on agencies abolished or transferred since March 4, 1933, a list of several hundred representative publications of Federal agencies, and a list of commonly used alphabetical abbreviations of names of Federal agencies.

PAMPHLETS FOR PUPIL AND TEACHER USE

Area Studies in American Universities. Washington 5, D. C.: Social Science Research Council, 726 Jackson Place, N. W. June 1951. 82 pp. A survey and tabular summaries of area research studies. Valuable as a guide in the selection of institutions and curricula for advanced study by research scholars interested in foreign areas.

Asia Calling. Santa Monica, California: Pan Pacific Children's Centers, Inc., 1128-16th Street. August 1951. 25¢. (Subscription rate, \$2.00 per year.) A particularly timely issue for United Nations Day and the peace treaty conferences. Of special interest is a series of articles on festivals in Japan, Britain, Paris, and China. Contains a detailed review of *The Whole World Singing* (Friendship Press: \$2.75), a book of folk music from round the world.

Aspiration. Volume 7, No. 2. New York 16: Anemostat Corporation of America, 10 E. 39th Street. 1951. 16 pp. Heating and ventilating modern schools. Scientific data on air conditioning of schools.

BATCHELDER, H. T., and ENGLE, S. H. *Some Characteristics of the Secondary School of the Future in the Light of Modern Developments.* Bulletin of the School of Education. Bloomington: Indiana University Bookstore. May 1951. 34 pp. 75¢. Conclusions and recommendations of a summer workshop on the direction the secondary school is taking.

BRIGGS, T. H. *The Secondary-School Curriculum: Yesterday, Today, and Tomorrow.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University. 1951. 89 pp. A series of lectures stressing the need for vision in curriculum construction and proposing ever increasing participation of the lay public in building the curriculum of the secondary school.

Center for Educational Service, College of Education, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio. Publications of:

Fourth Annual Conference on Elementary Education and Administration. 1950. 36 pp. Addresses and summary reports of work groups.

- Ohio University Annual Conference on Educational Administration*. 1950. 39 pp. Addresses by Walter D. Cocking and Shirley A. Hamrin relating to co-operative planning for educational needs in the fields of administration and guidance.
- Children and Youth in Civil Defense in Ohio*. Bulletin, No. 13-1. Columbus 16: Adjutant General's Department, State House. 1951. 28 pp. Concerns the protection of elementary- and secondary-school youth and the part they can play in the defense effort. Discusses pre-attack, attack, and post-attack emergencies.
- Compulsory Education and Its Prolongation*. New York: Columbia University Press. 1951. 168 pp. Information supplied by the Ministries of Education for 47 countries on the executive measures, extent, exceptions, and enforcement of compulsory education.
- COOKE, W. H. *Peoples of the Southwest: Patterns of Freedom and Prejudice*. New York 10: Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 212 Fifth Avenue. 1951. 35 pp. 25¢. A discussion of minority group problems in the Southwest.
- CORMACK, MARGARET. *Selected Pamphlets on the United Nations and International Relations*. New York: Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 405 W. 117th Street. 1951. 25¢. (Quantity rates on request.) A classified and annotated guide on such topics as Point Four, Colombo Plan, Trusteeship Council, International Refugee Organization, Collective Security, etc.
- Course of Study in Science for Secondary Schools*. Bulletin No. 400. Harrisburg: Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction. 1951. 369 pp. Reviews and reports research and describes selected practices in science teaching; indicates how such information can be applied in the classroom and recommends methods of instruction useful to both experienced and inexperienced teachers. Outlines course content, objectives, and learning experiences. Special section on science in junior high school. References and resource materials. Annotated bibliography of publications and audio-visual aids.
- Curriculum Guide, English and Social Studies, Grades 7, 8, 9*. Minneapolis 18: Minneapolis Public Schools. 1951. 17 pp. What is being taught in the Common Learnings course in Minneapolis junior high schools. Assembled data bearing on course content, with statements of general policy and procedures for evaluation.
- Digest of Annual Reports*. Washington 25, D. C.: Office of Education. 1951. Summary of annual reports submitted by State Boards for Vocational Education to the Office of Education for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1950. Contains sections on home economics, agricultural, business, and industrial education. Tables and charts give pertinent facts about the program of vocational education.
- DRESSEL, P. L. and SCHMID, J. *An Evaluation of the Tests of General Educational Development*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W. 1951. 58 pp. \$1.00. A research study on the purposes and extent of use of GED tests. Bibliography included.
- DUNCAN, R. O. *Play Six-Man Football*. Chicago 4: The Athletic Institute, 209 S. State Street. 1951. 23 pp. The status of six-man football in American public schools—its prevalence, cost, fundamentals.

- Emergency Defense Activities.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. June 1951. 115 pp. 25¢. A directory of government agencies engaged in defense activities and a summary of the responsibilities of each.
- The Five Percent.* Washington 6, D. C.: National Planning Association, 800 21st Street, N. W. 1951. 23 pp. 50¢. How American business can benefit by increased expenditures for educational, scientific, and welfare purposes. The "five percent" refers to the deduction from net earnings before taxes which corporations are permitted to make for expenditures on educational, scientific, and welfare purposes.
- Friendship Press, 156 Fifth Avenue, New York 10. Publications of:
- A Citizen of the Americas* by L. T. Holmes. 1951. 24 pp. 20¢. The story of Hugh Clarence Tucker who pioneered with the Bible in South America.
- Horseman of the Lord* by Alberto Rembao. 1951. 24 pp. 20¢. The story of Alfred Clarence Wright who spent his life as a missionary in Mexico.
- Invitation to Mexico* by Wesley Matzigkeit. 1951. 48 pp. 50¢. A guide for tourists and armchair travelers illustrated by Manuel Flores. Factual data on population, industry, routes, attractions, and Protestant work.
- Frustration in Adolescent Youth.* Bulletin 1951 No. 1. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1951. 65 pp. 25¢. Shows how frustration is caused by interference with orderly growth and development and outlines educational implications.
- Fundamental Education.* New York 27: Columbia University Press, 2960 Broadway. 1951. 85 pp. 25¢. A description of the elements and organization of UNESCO's fundamental education program.
- GEIGER, T., and CLEVELAND, H. *Making Western Europe Defensible.* Washington 6, D. C.: National Planning Association, 800-21st Street. 1951. 85 pp. \$1.00. An appraisal of the effectiveness of U. S. policy in Europe.
- Going to College Handbook.* Volume 6. Richmond 19, Virginia: Outlook Publishers, 1 N. 6th Street. 1951. 56 pp. 50¢. A comprehensive examination of the offerings of Presbyterian Church colleges of the nation; discussion of common problems of college students; opportunities for service in foreign mission fields.
- A Graded List of Books for School Libraries (1951-1952).* New York 17: Harcourt, Brace, and Co., 383 Madison Avenue. 1951. 66 pp. A selected list classified by range grading and difficulty within range. Lists especially suitable for partially seeing and slow-reading pupils. Topical index of curriculum subject headings. Author-title index. Lists of inexpensive reprints of standard titles. Type sizes, recommendations, and Dewey Decimal classifications are indicated.
- Grants and Appropriations for Research, Professional Education, and Medical Care.* New York 5: The National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis, 120 Broadway. 1951. Reprint from 13th Annual Report. 30 pp. Free. A summary of the effects of polio research on public health records and of the work being undertaken at the various institutions which have been granted Foundation funds.
- Health Instruction in the Secondary Schools.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1951. 20 pp. 10¢. Basic information about the administrative

and organizational aspects of health education: state regulations, establishing of standards, credit for instruction, time allotment, special courses offered, correlation with other subjects, certification requirements for health teaching.

Home Economics in Colleges and Universities of the United States. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1951. 58 pp. 20¢. Prepared especially to interpret home economics in higher education to visitors from other countries. Describes the development, purposes, procedures, organization, and facilities for home economics in American colleges.

Identifying Educational Needs of Adults. Circular No. 330. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1951. 64 pp. 35¢. An evaluation of 37 procedures commonly used in identifying educational needs and interests of adults.

Improving College Instruction. Washington 6, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W. 1951. 195 pp. Addresses and reports of study groups at the 1950 Chicago Conference sponsored jointly with the U. S. Office of Education.

Introducing East Africa. New York 20: British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza. 1950. 92 pp. A general picture of the area—its terrain, climate, peoples, history, and progress.

JONES, S. V. *How to Get It from the Government.* New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1951. 104 pp. \$1.50. Specific information on how to obtain hundreds of government services free or at nominal cost. A citizen's handbook that tells how to apply for homesteads, how to get a home loan, how to get a Latin-American fellowship, how to subscribe to a weather service, how to register a trade mark, how to get prints of masterpieces of art—to enumerate but a small number at random.

KENWORTHY, L. S. *Asia in the Social Studies Curriculum.* New York: Brooklyn College, Dept. of Education, the author. 1951. 44 pp. 50¢. A bibliography of printed materials, maps, films, filmstrips, etc., for elementary, junior, and senior high schools regarding specific Asiatic countries. Also a discussion of points of emphasis concerning Asia in the social studies curriculum.

Know Your North Central Association. Ann Arbor, Michigan: Harlan C. Koch, Rackham School of Graduate Studies, University of Michigan. April 1951. 29 pp. A question-and-answer pamphlet on the organization, objectives, membership, activities, services, and policies of the North Central Association.

Literature Guide for Use in Junior High Schools. Denver: Denver Public Schools. 1951. 135 pp. A presentation of the philosophy and objectives of literature in junior high schools, the role of the teacher, specific ways by which literature may contribute to typical units of study, and reading for pleasure in and out of the classroom, with an emphasis on the effect of literature on the development of the social and personal life of students. Suggestions for related activities.

Money Management—Your Health Dollar. Chicago 11: Consumer Education Department, Household Finance Corporation, 919 N. Michigan Avenue. 1951. 32 pp. 5¢. How to make the most of your health dollar.

Ohio's Children and Youth at the Midcentury. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio Commission on Children and Youth, Room 11, State House. 1951. 96 pp.

- Limited distribution. A report of preliminary organization and fact-finding for the Midcentury White House Conference and plans for follow-up action.
- Our Chicago Public Schools.* Annual Report 1950-1951. Chicago: Supt. of Schools. 1951. 48 pp. A pictorial, graphic, and textual presentation of school services for the past year, with plans and objectives for the succeeding year, organization chart, and budget report.
- The Professional Education and Training of Library Personnel in New Jersey.* Trenton: State Department of Education, Div. of the State Library, Roger H. McDonough. 1951. 31 pp. A report to the Commissioner of Education by a committee which examined present facilities and recommended future programs. Findings include a comparison of salaries in New Jersey with the national average and provisions for in-service training.
- Recreational Review and Leader.* New York 16: Stevens Publishing Co., Box 181, Murray Hill Station. Semi-monthly. 35¢. (Annual subscription in conjunction with *Recreation World*, \$5.00.) News and books on recreation topics.
- A Report of Activities of the Bureau of School District Organization.* Sacramento, California: Bureau of School District Organization, State Department of Education. August 1951. 16 pp. The liaison work of the Bureau between the State Board and county committees.
- Required Courses and Other Required Instruction in California Public High Schools.* Bulletin, Volume 20, No. 6. Sacramento: State Department of Education. (1949-1950) July 1951. 36 pp. Data on the pattern of requirements for graduation and the way high schools organize instruction required by law.
- Safety In Physical Education for the Classroom Teacher.* Washington 6, D. C.: National Commission on Safety Education, NEA, 1201 16th Street, N. W. 1951. 20 pp. 50¢. A discussion of play areas, equipment, and activities advisable for elementary-school children. Points out the teacher's liabilities in accidents. Encourages the reduction of the appalling number of play accidents through teaching habits of safety along with skills of games.
- Schools for Our Times.* Washington 6, D. C.: NEA, 1201 16th Street, N. W. 1951. 15 pp. A report of the profession to the public to focus attention on the vital role of the schools in a war of ideals.
- Seventh Quarterly Report on Germany.* New York: Policy Reports Secretary, OES, HICOG, APO 757-A, c/o Postmaster. 1951. 132 pp. A chronology of events; statement of Germany's foreign trade position; chapters on economic combines, communism against German defense, the German press. Graphic index.
- Standards for Automotive Service Instruction in Schools.* Detroit 2: AI-VE Conference on Public School Automotive Instruction, 320 New Center Building. 1951. 60 pp. Free. Standards on student selection, curriculum, supplies, equipment, shops, and teacher training. Sections on opportunities in the automotive industry and summer institutes for teacher training are included.
- Statistics of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1951. 48 pp. 15¢. Tabulated statistical data comparing the Land-Grant Colleges in such matters as capital outlay, enrollment, staff size, etc.

- The Study of Freedom.* Irvington-on-Hudson, New York: The Foundation for Economic Education, Inc. July 1951. 15 pp. Free. Arguments against the ideology of the welfare state with its government controls and tendency toward the isms. Also contains an outline of the Foundation.
- Summaries of Studies in Agricultural Education.* Voc. Div. Bulletin No. 246—Agric. Series No. 61. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1951. 48 pp. 20¢. An annotated bibliography of studies in agricultural education with classified subject index.
- Teaching of United States History in Public High Schools.* Bulletin 1949, No. 7. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1951. 20 pp. 15¢. A survey undertaken to secure facts about registrations and comparative emphasis at both junior and senior high-school levels in American history.
- Technical Assistance in Action.* Washington 25, D. C.: Special Projects Branch, Technical Assistance Division, Economic Co-operation Administration. 1951. 54 pp. Methods, results, and objectives of the technical services program of ECA.
- Tenth Semiannual Report of the Atomic Energy Commission.* Washington 25, D. C. 1951. 151 pp. Reports major activities such as weapons tests, uranium exploration program, agricultural research, civil defense, etc.
- Twelfth Report to Congress of the Economic Co-operation Administration.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1951. 156 pp. 40¢. Sections on: Economic Mobilization for Defense, Western Europe's Expanding Economic Base, ECA Programs for Europe, Far East Aid Programs, Special Programs for Strategic Materials and Small Business.
- United Nations, Department of Public Information, New York City. Publications of:
- The Price of Peace.* 1951. 53 pp. 25¢. A symposium of broadcasts on present day controversies by thirteen spokesmen of governments.
- World Facts and Figures.* 1951. 36 pp. 25¢. Factual data on miscellaneous subjects such as population, strategic materials, merchant shipping fleets, electrical energy, medical facilities, etc.
- Use Hammers the Safe Way.* Bulletin No. 127. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1951. 13 pp. 5¢. A description of the various kinds of hammers and their proper use and care for safety on specific types of jobs.
- The Work of the Educational Consultant in School Building Planning.* New York 16: Engelhardt, Engelhardt, and Leggett, 59 Park Avenue. 1951. Unpaged. The services rendered by the educational consultant in school building planning to school board members, administrators, and local architects.
- Your Key to Kenosha.* Kenosha, Wisconsin: Community Council, c/o H. R. Maurer, Supt. of Schools. 1951. 26 pp. Mimeographed. A brochure for new teachers in the Kenosha Public Schools. Introduces reader to history of city, industrial progress, parks, transportation system, school system, school policies, professional organizations, cultural opportunities, recreation, map of city. Friendly tone.

News Notes

THE 1951 OCCUPATIONAL OUTLOOK HANDBOOK—Principals, counselors, and teachers will welcome the new edition of the *Occupational Outlook Handbook* just issued by the U. S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics in co-operation with the Veterans Administration. The 1951 edition, completely revised, shows the impact of the defense mobilization program on all industries and occupations included in the 1949 edition. It also includes new chapters on such defense industries as aircraft, shipbuilding, steel, and petroleum. The new 576-page volume describes several hundred occupations, largely those of major interest to young people who request information on job requirements, employment trends, and outlook.

The occupations described in the *Handbook* represent eighty-two per cent of the employment opportunities in the professional and semiprofessional fields in the United States; seventy-nine per cent of those in the skilled trades; thirty per cent of those in service occupations; and smaller proportions of those in administrative, sales, and semiskilled fields. The section on agriculture describes the outlook and kind of work involved in most of the major types of farming in ten regions in the United States and in related occupations such as agricultural teaching and research.

Reports on each occupation describe long-run employment trends, as well as the immediate outlook as affected by the defense program. They present data on earnings, kind of training and qualifications required, nature of the work, and chief industries and locations in which those engaged in the occupation are employed.

To young people ready for occupational planning or to those choosing subjects for study which are important to their later employment, the need for this type of information is acute. Knowing both the qualifications required for a job and the nature of the work will help them to determine whether they can enter a particular occupation and succeed in it. Data on earnings will reveal the importance of adequate training. The outlook information will indicate what the employment opportunities will be when they complete training and begin to look for jobs.

An estimated 1,340,000 young people will go to work in 1952 directly after leaving secondary schools—more than half before graduating. Knowledge of jobs is fundamental to their realistic vocational planning and successful, happy futures. Yet, many of them have chosen or will choose an occupation on the basis of incomplete or inaccurate information. Sooner or later many of these young people will find themselves in dead-end jobs, unable to compete with better trained workers for employment and advancement.

Entrance of such a large number of young people into the labor force with a minimum of education and training constitutes a waste of the nation's basic resource—manpower. The individual worker can make his maximum contribution to the nation's needs and to his own personal satisfaction only if he has a knowledge of our industrial and occupational world and if he is motivated to

recognize and develop his potential abilities and skills for use in an occupation where he can be most productive and successful.

The *Handbook* is designed to help principals, counselors, and teachers in supplying this knowledge and motivation. It will aid the principal in curriculum planning and in developing or improving the school personnel program. It is an indispensable tool to the counselor who must be concerned with nation-wide, as well as local, trends and their relationship to immediate and long-range planning of the counselee. The *Handbook* is also a useful textbook or reference for the teachers of classes in occupations, of civics, or other social studies. No secondary-school library should be without it.

To provide background and context for the reports on each occupation and to emphasize the changing character of occupational and industrial life, the *Handbook* reviews the growth and changing composition of the population and the labor force, the major trends in industry, and their effect on long-run occupational trends. It shows how technological, industrial, and social changes increase the need for workers in some occupations, reduce the demand in others, sometimes create new occupations and destroy old ones, and constantly alter the content and character of every line of work.

To persons teaching occupations or to persons seeking information on which to base selection of a course of training or a career, a full understanding of the rapidly changing nature of our economy is important. Most young people, who have a half century of work before them, are likely to make occupational changes in the course of their working life—either to improve their position or because a change is forced upon them. Counselors and teachers can use this type of information in stressing to young people the fluid nature of our economy and the importance of getting as much education and training as possible.

The *Handbook* contains many features which will aid the user. A list of the occupations appropriate to different abilities and interests points out the variety of occupations with similar requirements and widens the range of choice. Eighty-five charts and more than one hundred photographs enhance its appeal to students. The charts may be reproduced in wall size or used as models for the creation of similar charts presenting local facts and trends secured by class members from local sources.

Still other features of the *Handbook* are an introduction on "putting the *Handbook* to work," addressed specifically to teachers and counselors; a list of organizations or publications which may provide further information on occupations; and an alphabetical, cross-referenced index.

The preparation of occupational outlook reports is a continuing program of the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Revised editions of the *Handbook* will be issued from time to time to bring the information up to date and will include additional occupational reports. These reports between editions of the *Handbook* will be made available in the form of "Occupational Outlook Summaries." Principals, counselors, and teachers who wish to receive these summaries, some of which are accompanied by a wall chart, may be placed on a mailing list kept for this purpose. Write to the U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington 25, D. C.

The *Occupational Outlook Handbook*, 1951 Edition (Bulletin 998), may be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C. The price is \$3 a copy with a 25 per cent discount on orders of 100 copies or more.

30,000 COPIES OF 1951-52 NEA HANDBOOK PRINTED FOR DISTRIBUTION—The 1951-52 *NEA Handbook for Local State and National Associations*, published each fall by the National Education Association, is the first of a series of handbooks which will be concerned with the Centennial Action Program 1951-1957. This program was adopted at the recent NEA convention and seeks to further unify and strengthen the teaching profession by the 100th anniversary of the NEA. A total of 30,000 copies of the 384-page publication is being distributed to presidents and secretaries of state and local associations, presidents of universities and colleges, deans of schools of education, rural state supervisors, NEA officers and members of the headquarters staff, and delegates to the San Francisco Representative Assembly. Copies are available from the NEA at \$1.00 each.

NEW UNITED NATIONS FILMSTRIP—The United Nations Department of Public Information announced new arrangements for the distribution of its filmstrips in the United States and Canada. Since the inauguration of its filmstrip program in 1946, the United Nations has received a constantly increasing number of requests from clubs, schools, churches, study groups, and civic organizations in all parts of the world for filmstrips on various aspects of United Nations work and accomplishments. To insure that filmstrips are available to meet the thousands of requests received annually and to make possible the production of future filmstrips, it has now become necessary for budgetary reasons to place United Nations filmstrips on sale at a nominal charge. The Text-Film Department of the McGraw-Hill Book Company of New York City has been appointed as the agent for United Nations filmstrips in the United States and Canada. In the past five years the United Nations Department of Public Information has produced a number of filmstrips not only to depict the purposes and structure of the United Nations but also to explain the activities and accomplishments of the organization and its related specialized agencies. The filmstrips have been prepared for various age groups and educational levels and have been made available with commentaries in a number of languages. Six United Nations filmstrips are now available from the McGraw-Hill Book Company. The six strips which may be ordered at once are: *Aims of the United Nations Charter*, (18 frames—photographs and captions for elementary schools and junior high-school groups); *To Serve All Mankind*, (67 frames—photographs, maps, and vignettes, for secondary schools, adult groups); *The Universal Declaration of Human Rights*, (73 frames—drawings, for secondary schools and adult groups); *A Garden We Planted Together*, (52 frames—drawings, for elementary school, ages 8-12); *U. N. Around the World*, (34 frames—drawings and photographs, elementary school, junior high-school groups); and *To Combine Our Efforts—The Story of the United Nations Permanent Headquarters*, (41 frames—photographs and drawings, for secondary schools and adult groups). Under the new distribution arrangements individual United Nations filmstrips are priced at \$3.00. For orders of three or more titles or for three or more prints of the same strip, the charge is \$2.00 per filmstrip, postpaid. Orders for United Nations filmstrips from the United States should henceforth be sent to: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Text-Film Department, 330 West 42nd Street, New York 18, N. Y.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA—The widespread and tremendous increase in television in the United States had lead to fears that this would mean a sharp

drop in reading. But Boston (Massachusetts) libraries report interesting conclusions, on this score. They say that not only has there been a recent increase in both juvenile and adult reading, but that adults are now borrowing books of a more serious nature, presumably leaving television to provide them with fictional entertainment. However, Washington, D. C. reports a decrease.

EDUCATOR'S WASHINGTON DISPATCH—This is a fortnightly letter designed to keep schoolmen posted on educational events pertinent to their position, their school, and their future. The Dispatch is an authoritative *Washington Newsletter* which correlates all developments and behind-the-scene events affecting education. It tells what is *really* happening in educational circles, and *why*. Through it, one can obtain the balanced coverage so necessary to understand the transitional educational period we now face. There is no weighing down of any particular pet project or subject in the Dispatch—no selling of a single philosophy or one course of action. Rather, the staff of the Dispatch believes that *all* schoolmen should know what's going on everywhere in education. It is mailed to subscribers every other week by first class mail—26 fact-filled issues a year. It is supplemented by *The Educational Trends* on a monthly basis. Each *Trend* contains a thorough analysis of an important educational problem and is complete in itself. For complete particulars write to George A. Blessing, 100 Garfield Ave., New London, Conn.

UNITED NATION FILMS—The United Nations through the United Nations Film Board has produced more than a score of films which are now being distributed in 55 countries. Earlier films dealt with the structure and objectives of the United Nations and the specialized agencies. Later films have dealt with some of their accomplishments. Now production is mainly concentrated on a series of screen magazines issued under the general title, *This Is the United Nations*. These are released periodically and describe the achievements of international co-operation promoted by the United Nations and its specialized agencies. All films are available in both 16 and 35 millimeters, sound. Due to high production costs, it is not possible for the United Nations Department of Public Information to offer films free of charge to non-governmental organizations or educational institutions. Thirty-five millimeter versions of United Nations films can only be obtained from the Films Distribution Officer, Films & Visual Information Division, United Nations, New York. United Nations films in 16 millimeter can be rented or purchased from one of the official regional distributors or by writing direct to the Films Distribution Officer, Films and Visual Information Division, United Nations, New York.

SCHOOLS CO-OPERATE IN CITY CIVIL DEFENSE—The Denver Public Schools in co-operation with the City Civil Defense authorities will institute several projects to protect children and school buildings against the effects of possible bombings. Of particular importance is the building of constructive attitudes of intelligent awareness, alertness, co-operation, and calmness. Teachers, through their objective, direct, and matter-of-fact manner in answering questions, planning with pupils, and organizing activities, can do much to establish these attitudes and eliminate feelings of anxiety, fear, and hysteria. The projects to be undertaken are as follows: *Refuge Areas* for the safety and protection of children will be designated in each building by the school civil defense warden; *security drills* will be organized—a bulletin giving specific directions has been issued to all principals; *identification*

tags will be requested for each garment of clothing a child wears; and classroom teachers will give instruction in first aid.

AMERICAN MAGAZINE SHOWS HOW TO APPRAISE PUBLIC SCHOOLS—Parents can judge the effectiveness of the public schools their children are attending after they read "How Good Are Your Schools?" by Wilbur A. Yauch in the September 1951 issue of *The American Magazine*. Professor Yauch, a widely-known educator on the staff of Ohio University, Athens, Ohio, discusses 15 points to check. If the answer is yes to more than 10, your school is well above the average. These are the 15 questions: (1) Is the pupil's furniture movable, modern, and comfortable? (2) When you enter the classroom does it give you a feeling of being in a pleasant workshop for learning? (3) Is a corner in the classroom filled with interesting books that your child can read when he has finished his assignments? (4) Is the teacher attractively dressed and pleasant looking with a soft, warm voice and a "let's find out" attitude? (5) Do the pupils treat the teacher with respect and affection? (6) Are normal talking and laughing permitted if not distracting? (7) Are the pupils apparently learning much about the world in which they live? (8) Is the principal a human sort of person who makes you feel at ease and is a pleasant, interesting talker about education? (9) Do the pupils help the teacher plan the program and form committees to carry out many class projects? (10) Are the three R's learned by using them in real-life situations instead of by drill? (11) Are pupils promoted on the basis of what is best for them instead of on the basis of "passing" grades? (12) Are there regular checkups of physical and social developments? (13) Does the class go on occasional field trips outside the classroom? (14) Do the pupils learn from many different books instead of one standard text? and (15) Do they seem to work well together, showing respect for one another?

SHORTAGE OF SCIENTIFICALLY AND TECHNICALLY TRAINED PERSONNEL—Director of Defense Mobilization Charles E. Wilson called attention to the Nation's "serious shortage of scientifically and technically trained personnel" and urged a three-point program to meet this shortage in the face of defense needs. The supply of scientific and engineering graduates in 1951 is less than half that needed to man fully our economic and defense programs. Present indications are that the number of scientifically trained graduates will steadily decrease at least until 1954 while the demands of essential civilian and defense programs, in the same period, will continue to increase. The three-point program suggested is: *first, government, industry, and educational institutions must make the most effective possible utilization of those persons who have received scientific and technical training; second, our educational institutions can develop counseling programs which will result in a larger number of men and women being trained in these fields; and third, industry and government should develop both on the job training programs and co-operative training programs with institutions of higher learning and other educational institutions which will result in employed persons receiving scientific and technical training.*

AWARDS TO TEACHERS FOR TRAVEL STORIES—Teachers are invited to submit travel stories for the fourth annual awards offered by *Scholastic Teacher* magazine, 351 Fourth Avenue, New York 10, New York. All nine top award-winning stories will be published. Authors will receive \$25. Honorable men-

tion winners will have their choice of the 43 titles in the "Rivers of America" series. Deadline for entries in the Travel Stories is Feb. 1, 1952. Entries are accepted if they are by teachers, school administrators, supervisors, or librarians. All stories should be sent to: Travel Editor, Scholastic Teacher, 351 Fourth Avenue, New York 10, N. Y.

YOUNG EYES IN OLD SCHOOL ROOMS—The school room that was good enough for grandfather is not good enough for today's children, the American Optometric Association stated, as it called attention to the eyesight problems caused by hundreds of last century's school houses still in use. About 40 per cent of all grade-school children are visually handicapped for performance of their school tasks, according to the association which reported the results of examinations of more than a million children in all parts of the country. "Vision problems are four times as common in the eighth grade as in the first, and much of the blame must rest on improper lighting and other conditions in the school room itself," the association said. "Millions of cases of inadequate vision could be prevented by better school-room design, lighting, and furnishing." Among the elements of a proper seeing environment, according to the association, are: (1) adequate light, evenly distributed. No part of a room should be more than four times as bright as any other. In many classrooms the window side of the room is sixteen times as bright as the opposite side. (2) Freedom from glare. No pupil should have direct sunlight on his work or in his eyes, and there should be no shiny surfaces causing glare from either sunlight or artificial light. (3) Walls and ceilings should be painted in light pastel colors which do not absorb as much light as drab school-room browns. (4) Seats and desks should be adjustable to suit the pupils using them. (5) Pastel chalkboards are preferable to the old-fashioned light-absorbing blackboard. Many modern schools use green boards with yellow chalk. This combination is easier on the eyes and it helps walls and ceilings save light.

THE 20/20 FALLACY—The idea that 20/20 vision is perfect is a fallacy, according to the American Optometric Association. Hundreds of thousands of school children will pass the 20/20 test, yet fail in their school work this year because their vision is inadequate, the association said in emphasizing the importance of more comprehensive school vision tests. "Most school work requires seeing within arm's length, and the 20/20 standard applies only to vision at 20 feet from the eyes," the association said. "Furthermore, the 20/20 test does not take into account the many visual skills required to read, write, and perform most other school tasks. A child may be cross-eyed, color-blind, and have many other visual problems, and still pass the 20/20 test." The 20/20 standard is an arbitrary one adopted by Herman Snellen who was born in 1834. When you are able to read the letters at 20 feet, you have 20/20 vision. If you can read only the larger letters at 30 feet distance, you have 20/30 vision, and so on. "The 20/20 standard is neither perfect nor average, and the Snellen test is misleading if it is not accompanied by other tests that measure more important requirements for practical seeing," the association said.

SCHOOL DEPARTMENT ESTABLISHED BY CRAFTINT—A special school department to service boards of education throughout the country has been established by the Craftint Manufacturing Company, 1615 Collamer Ave.,

Cleveland, Ohio, manufacturers of Graphic Arts Supplies. The same professional grade art materials which Craftint has made available to commercial artists and art schools for the past 25 years will now be offered nationally to public and parochial schools. In addition to professional artists' materials—quality drawing papers, brushes, inks, and tempera paints—the *Craftint School Catalogue* offers secondary-school art items such as crayons, chalk, water-color pans, clay, and powder paint. A special section of Craftint's new *School Catalogue* is devoted to Craftint's revolutionary silk-screen stencil film which is adhered to and removed from the silk by water. This film eliminates inflammable adhering liquids and solvents required by conventional processes. Prominent educators have predicted that Craftint silk-screen films will increase the popularity of the silk-screen process in schools. The *New Catalogue* also features the Craftint doubletone process which cuts costs in the production of school newspapers and yearbooks. Craftint's new *School Catalogue* is available to all interested teachers free on request.

FILMS FOR CLASSROOM USE—The British Information Services has announced the availability of the following 16 mm sound films: *Auto Suggestion* (11 minutes; black and white; rental, \$1.50; sale price, \$32.50 per print. Among the highlights are scenes of the skill and craftsmanship which go into the custom-making of cars); *West of England* (10 minutes; technicolor; rental, \$2.50; sale price, \$90.00 per print. This film presents a picture of the beautiful Stroud valleys, which form a peaceful background to the hum of machinery as yards and yards of fine West of England cloth come off the looms); *A Life in Her Hands* (58 minutes; black and white; rental, \$6.00; sale price, \$135.00 per print. Pays tribute to all members of the nursing profession, and gives an honest and sincere study of nursing as a career); *Radio* (10 minutes; black and white; rental, \$1.50; sale price \$32.50 per print. This C. O. I. film is one of a series of "Cinemagazines" produced by the Crown Film Unit, and contains three items of special interest on telecommunications); *Radio Telephony on Land*—(The use of radio telephony in directing police to the scene of a crime with sequences in the "999" room at Scotland Yard. Also the use of this medium by a press reporter for communicating his story direct to his newspaper); *Radio Telegraphy at Sea* (The General Post Office's wireless station at Burnham is the largest and best equipped ship-to-shore radio station in the world. Besides handling routine messages and telegrams to and from ships, this station relays distress signals and assists in many emergencies, such as obtaining medical help for ships without a medical officer. Bumham also keeps a complete record and location of all British deep-sea craft afloat); *Television* (A view of the B.B.C. Television Studios, a review of the proposed extensions and some of the equipment now in use. This item shows excerpts from outside broadcasts and studio productions, and closes with shots of the new Sutton Coldfield station, the world's most powerful Television transmitter); and *Family Portrait* (25 minutes; black and white; rental, \$3.75 per day, sale price \$75 per print. An historical study.) All films are available from British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 30, New York.

CATALOG CARDS FOR FILMS AVAILABLE FOR FIRST TIME AT LIBRARY OF CONGRESS—The Library of Congress has inaugurated a new service when, for the first time, it will print and distribute catalog cards for motion pictures and filmstrips. Since 1901, printed cards for books and other library materials

have been supplied by the Library but catalog cards for films have not in the past been available. An agreement has been made by the Library of Congress with the U. S. Office of Education that will result in comprehensive coverage by catalog cards of government films. The printed card for motion pictures and filmstrips will be the standard (7.5 x 12.5 mm.) size on 100 per cent rag paper and will contain the name of the picture, the producer, date of release, running time, size of film, notation on sound and color, and, as applicable, credits, a summary of the contents, subjects covered, grade level, and other information essential to a complete cataloging description for the film. The standard space for over-printing or typing subjects or other headings will be reserved at the top of the card, and space on the left margin will be ample for location notations or other information desired by the user. Information about this new service may be obtained by writing the Card Division, Library of Congress, Washington 25, D. C.

NEW SCHOOL LAW FOR BERLIN—The new school law for Berlin, passed after thorough discussion by parents and other citizens and which became effective on May 31, 1951, is less liberal than the law of June 26, 1948, which it supersedes. The 1951 Act provides for a six-year elementary school instead of the eight-years stipulated by the 1948 Act. However, the fact that the Law retains a common elementary school two years longer than before the Occupation means that a vital element of progress made since 1945 in Berlin remains in effect. Further evidence of progress toward equal educational opportunity is that the 1951 Act provides for coeducation, that the principle of school attendance to 18 is accepted, and that it provides some choice of studies until the student is at least 14 years old.

JAPANESE YOUTH ACTIVITIES—Nearly 100 specially trained Japanese are now employed by SCAP to work with Japanese youth and youth organizations in their adjustment to a democratic society. These youth specialists have responsibility for leadership training and for strengthening youth programs. Such programs include the improvement of facilities for youth groups and proper use of information media to keep the public aware of youth problems and to stimulate co-operation in seeking solutions.

BAVARIAN "SCHOOL WEEK"—The first of its kind in the history of German education, "School Week" was celebrated throughout Bavaria during the first week of April. The "Week" was sponsored by the Associated Bavarian Teachers and Educators Societies, and included a state-wide demonstration of methods and aims in education. The opening ceremonies, staged at the Munich Fair Grounds and participated in by 400 prominent guests, included a huge exhibit entitled "The Bavarian School." This model school exhibition was later opened to the public and visited by more than 47,000 persons. Other events of the "School Week" held elsewhere in Bavaria were demonstration classes, film showings, fora, lectures, and discussion meetings. Also timed to open during "School Week" was a traveling exhibit entitled "You and The School." The production consisted of displays depicting Bavarian school life, a miniature exhibit of a Bavarian village, *et cetera*. Both the Bavarian "School Week" and the traveling exhibit had the objective of opening the eyes of the of the German citizen to the problems facing the schools and of making clear his rights and duties regarding the improvement of education in a democratic system of government.

STATEMENT URGING PRIORITY FOR SCHOOL BUILDING CONSTRUCTION—The Executive Committee of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, 600 South Michigan Boulevard, Chicago 5, Illinois, earlier this year adopted the following statement urging priority for school building construction: WHEREAS, the continued maintenance of an efficient and effective educational system is of the utmost importance in perpetuating our American democratic form of government; and WHEREAS, the operation of our complex and highly technical society in war and in peace depends upon the consistent maintenance of adequate educational facilities; and WHEREAS, the school buildings existing today are often obsolete and inadequate to house the present school population; and WHEREAS, the current phenomenal growth of enrollments in the public schools in the United States and the rapidly rising potential enrollments, as now recorded in the United States census and elsewhere, make imperative the uninterrupted continuation of the country's school construction program; and WHEREAS, a high priority for necessary construction would claim only a small proportion of the total production of critical materials; now THEREFORE, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers urges that, after major military needs of the United States of America have been met, a top priority for materials, equipment, and supplies for school buildings be established on the premise that next in importance to the military protection of America's citizens stands the educational training of the nation's children and youth.

ONE IN FIVE GOES TO SCHOOL—According to figures released by the U. S. Office of Education, 33,121,000 Americans will go school to this year in public and private schools and colleges. This estimate includes: 24,468,000 in elementary schools as compared with 23,686,000 last year; 6,168,000 in secondary schools as compared with 6,142,000 last year; 2,225,000 in colleges and universities as compared with 2,500,000 last year; 175,000 in private commercial schools as compared with 300,000 last year; and 85,000 in collegiate nurses training as compared with 75,000 last year.

WHO'S TRYING TO RUIN OUR SCHOOLS?—A four-page article, "Who's Trying to Ruin Our Schools?" by Arthur D. Morse appears in the September 1951 issue of *McCall's Magazine*. It deals directly with the attacks being made on the public schools throughout the United States. Material for the article was gathered from NEA headquarters.

EDUCATION IN OUR RURAL SCHOOLS—The nation's rural schools provide an inferior education for nearly 3,500,000 children, a recent *New York Times* survey indicates. The nation-wide study was made by Benjamin Fine, educational editor of the newspaper. Dr. Fine found that more than half of the teachers employed in the public schools of the nation teach in rural schools. Rural county superintendents and boards of education are confronted with the problem of finding an adequate supply of competent teachers each year. The average rural teacher received \$2200 annually, or about \$42 a week, the *Times* reports. Many teachers receive \$65 to \$100 a month. But salaries are not the only reason teachers seek employment in urban rather than rural schools, according to Dr. Fine. Some rural schools have from 70 to 90 children crowded into a single room. Many country school buildings are of the order of cow sheds, and converted garages and church basements often serve as classrooms. The survey indicates that living conditions for rural teachers

leave much to be desired. Either the teacher "boards" in a house near the school or commutes from a nearby larger town. Besides being expected to contribute to community life, the teacher often has many restrictions placed on her personal freedom. The rate of turnover is much heavier in rural than in urban schools, the *Times* survey shows. Dr. Fine found that the rural teacher is generally a woman with about two years of college education who will stay in the teaching field from three to five years. Often rural teachers have no tenure—they are employed from year to year, and can be dismissed any time the local school board desires. Rural schools are a haven for the poorly prepared teacher who holds an emergency license or certificate, the newspaper study indicates. More than 60 per cent of the 80,000 emergency licenses granted to teachers are held by persons who teach in rural areas.

Nearly 12,000,000 children out of an approximate 26,000,000 enrolled in elementary and secondary schools in the United States are attending rural schools. The *Times* found that the number of children enrolled in rural schools, like the finances, are not evenly distributed among the states. It was generally found that states with the largest number of children of school age had the smallest amount of school funds for each child. Yet, these states make the greatest effort to provide support, when effort is measured by the percentage of income spent for education by the people of the state. Approximately 1,000,000 children, the greater part of them belonging to the families of migratory workers, go to school an average of 60 days a year, the report continues. This is one source of a large number of illiterates annually. In some localities six out of ten of those called for Service in the present emergency have been declared unfit for Service because of educational or physical inadequacies. Rural schools have made many advancements during the past years, but the nation-wide survey shows that educators face a tremendous task in bringing them up to par with urban institutions. — *The Texas Outlook*, August, 1951.

WISCONSIN HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS LEARN TELEVISION TECHNIQUES—

Television is now being offered to high-school students for study from the University of Wisconsin. The new course is provided by the University Extension Division and may be taken for credit. Sixteen assignments covering basic principles of video, current standards, television receiver currents, and elementary servicing techniques are included in the course. — *The Journal of Education*.

FULBRIGHT OPPORTUNITIES—More than 1,200 Americans will have opportunities to undertake graduate study, teaching, or research abroad during the 1952-1953 academic year under the terms of the Fulbright Act. The countries in which these opportunities will be available are Austria, Australia, Belgium, Burma, Egypt, France, Greece, India, Iran, Italy, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Pakistan, Philippines, Thailand, Turkey, and the United Kingdom. All applications must be submitted by October 15, 1951. Persons wishing to apply should send their inquiries to the following agencies:

For graduate study: Students now enrolled in American colleges and universities should apply to the Fulbright Program Advisers on their campuses. Others should apply directly to the Institute of International Education, 2 West 45th Street, New York 19, New York.

For university teaching, or advanced research: to the Conference Board of Associated Research Councils, 2101 Constitution Avenue, N. W., Washington 25, D. C.

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Awards were made in 1951-1952 to 643 Americans for study abroad under the terms of the Fulbright Act. The distribution of this year's awards by country is as follows: Australia 20, Austria 50, Belgium 20, Burma 2, Egypt 8, France 166, Greece 12, India 16, Iran 3, Italy 101, Netherlands 30, New Zealand 10, Norway 23, Pakistan 1, Philippines 6, Thailand 1, Turkey 4, United Kingdom 170.

REMEDIAL READING—Remedial reading programs should be of interest to every high school in the nation. A very excellent article entitled "A Remedial Reading Program in a Senior High School" by Clifford Swenby and Margaret Zielsdorf appeared in the September 1951 issue of the *School Review* (pages 350 to 357) discusses such a program in the Wausau Senior High School, Wausau, Wisconsin. This article gives an account of the results of such a program that has been carried on in this high school for three years without the aid of an expert, with only a slight outlay for material, and without noticeable changes in the school program.

JOURNALISM SURVEY—A recent survey conducted by journalism students at A and M College in Texas shows the extent to which journalism is being taught in Texas high schools and also the extent to which they have high-school publications. Questionnaires were sent to 125 schools selected to provide a cross-section for the study. Eighty-two schools replied. From a study of these replies the following general conclusions are made concerning the state: (1) three fourths of the high schools offer journalism courses of which about half of them offered a one-year course; (2) schools offering more than two journalism courses generally have enrollments of 1,000 or more and schools with no journalism courses are those of 600 or less; (3) approximately half of the schools put out bi-weekly newspapers of which about half are printed; (4) about one fourth of the newspapers carry advertisements; (5) almost 70 per cent of the schools have subscriptions to the newspapers on a voluntary basis; (6) 47 per cent of the journalism teachers have had experience in the field; (7) 42 per cent of the newspaper sponsors have had professional experience; (8) the newspaper sponsor is inevitably a journalism teacher but the yearbook sponsor is found to be almost anyone; (9) almost 90 per cent of the schools publish yearbooks of which about one third are printed and about one fourth are offset; (10) less than one per cent of the schools where journalism is taught had no yearbook.

1953 AASA YEARBOOK—The American Association of School Administrators has chosen for the subject for its 1953 yearbook, *The Curriculum*. Lawrence E. Derthick, Superintendent of Schools at Chattanooga, Tennessee, is chairman of a 10-member commission charged with the preparation of the volume. The book will be published in February 1953.

TEMPER OF THE DAY AND THE NEW SCHOOL YEAR—The September 1951 supplement of the *Educator's Washington Dispatch* entitled *Educational Trend* outlines and discusses seven statements relative to education. These statements are: (1) the new school year begins at a time of high national prosperity; (2) a desperate search for new formulae by which to pay for public education

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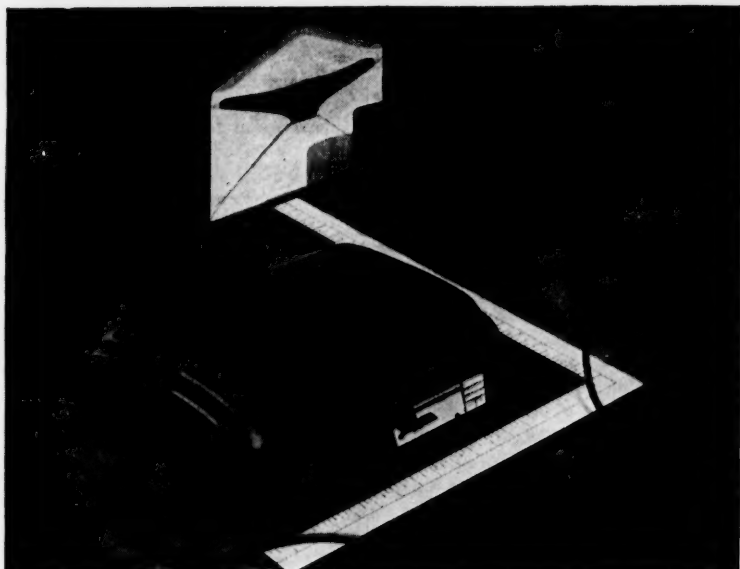
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Copies of this four-page publication are available at 20 cents each or in quantities at the following discounts: 1 to 50 copies no discount; 51 to 250 copies 5 per cent; 251 to 500 copies 10 per cent; 501 to 1000 copies 15 per cent; 1001 or more copies 20 per cent (plus postage). Orders should be sent to: Educator's Washington Dispatch, New London, Connecticut.

HIGH SCHOOL TYPING—The Remington Rand Company recently made a survey of high-school typing enrollments. Some of the findings from the 736 high school which participated in the survey are: (1) the total enrollment in the 736 high schools reporting was 260,199 of which 66,112 take typing; (2) of those taking typing 25,483 take the course for personal use and 40,629 take it for vocational use; (3) nearly two thirds of the typing courses offered are for one year or less; (4) in 77 per cent of the schools, students are mixed together in the same typing classes regardless of their objectives for taking the course; (5) problems enumerated by typing teachers fell into five general categories—speed and accuracy, typing techniques, grading, use of textbooks, and individual pupil differences. — *Business Education World*, April, 1950.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOL CRISIS—The following statement and editor's note is reported from the September 8, 1951, issue of the *Saturday Review of Literature*: "According to officials of the National Education Association, meeting in San Francisco last July, American public school education is under widespread attack. Dr. Richard B. Kennan, executive secretary of the NEA's Commission for the Defense of Democracy through Education, pointed to the school systems of Port Washington and Scarsdale, N. Y.; Englewood, N. J.; San Angelo, Tex; Ferdale, Mich.; and Montgomery County, Md. as being the particular targets for the anti-school forces at the moment. The current campaign got started, according to Dr. Kennan, in Pasadena, Calif., where a complex local situation led to the discharge late in 1950 of Dr. Willard E. Goslin, then president of the American Association of School Administrators—a case that won wide publicity through David Hulburd's book *It Happened in Pasadena*.

"In most communities where there are school crises, local sources of unrest—a controversial bond issue, an attempt to raise taxes, some unhappy parents, a discontented teachers group—are given encouragement and guidance by professional anti-school organizations whose income is derived from donations and the sale of books, pamphlets, and magazines. Their stock in trade is the charge that the schools are teaching Communism, that 'progressive education' and the 'frills' introduced during the past twenty-five years have caused neglect of the 'fundamentals' of education and 'the three R's.' Racial and religious prejudices are resorted to. Most frequently mentioned among those who are working actively against the public school are Allen A. Zoll, executive vice president of the so-called National Council for American Education Association (not to be confused with the National Education Association or the American Council on Education), and Lucille Cardin Crain, editor



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of the *Educational Reviewer*, a quarterly devoted to attacks on what she considers 'subversive' textbooks. Mr. Zoll himself has denied that he was responsible for obtaining Dr. Goslin's resignation in Pasadena, but his literature and his followers were in evidence during the campaign."

Because of the importance of this situation to the American people and the educational system the *Saturday Review of Literature* published reports on six communities representative of the many where the schools are currently discussed and studied. Each of the six reports is written by a resident of the community who has a firsthand knowledge of the local situation. Communities represented are: Port Washington, N. Y.; Pasadena, Calif.; Englewood, N. J.; Denver, Colo.; Eugene, Ore.; and Palo Alto, Calif.

This September issue of the *Saturday Review of Literature* is of especial interest to those interested in education. This number carries not only what has now become a widely read treatment of ideas and trends in the world of education, but also reviews of books dealing with that field.

MAKING MOTION PICTURES—Schools interested in making their own motion pictures will find two publications very valuable in assisting them with both filming and editing. These aids are *Basic Motion Picture Techniques* (a 25-minute sound movie) and a manual, *Producing School Movies* by Eleanor D. Child and Hardy R. Finch. The film explains aspects of planning, screen direction, composition, using the tripods, and newsreel techniques. Both of these publications are being reissued by and are available from Sterling Films, Inc., 316 West 57th Street, New York, New York—*The English Journal*, September, 1951.

FIVE NEW DEFENSE PUBLICATIONS—Five new official publications have been distributed by the Federal Civil Defense Administration to state, territorial, and local Civil Defense officials and the public. The publications are: *Emergency Action to Save Lives* (basic information for householders on how to care for injured persons until the arrival of organized first-aid or medical help); *Police Services* (suggested techniques in organizing and directing police Civil Defense services); *The Rescue Service* (aids in organizing, selecting, equipping, and training rescue teams); *Principles of Civil Defense* (discusses basic types of defense against atomic attack—web defense, mutual aid, and mobile support); and *Civil Defense Household First-Aid Kit*. These and many other FCDA publications are available from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C.

NOMINATING COMMITTEE FOR SCHOOL BOARD CANDIDATES—Dobbs Ferry, a village of 6,000 people, has one elementary school and one junior-senior high school. The Board of Education consists of six members, serving three years, elected by the qualified voters each spring. In 1946, the education committee of the League of Women Voters undertook a study of procedures for nominating school board candidates. The study culminated in a plan which seemed best suited to the community.

The plan provided for a committee of fourteen, half of them to retire each year. The Dobbs Ferry Home and School Association appoints four members and the other organizations each appoint two. These are the League of Women Voters, the Woman's Club, the Kiwanis, the Chamber of Commerce, and the Lion's Club. These six sponsoring groups were chosen because they are representative of the community in membership and in purpose and because they are non-restrictive in membership.

The plan was first presented to the executive committee of the Home and School Association which agreed to sponsor it. Letters were then written to



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Board of Education members, outlining the plan and asking for their comments as individual citizens who had had experience in school elections. After the six sponsoring organizations approved the plan, it was presented to the community at large. Members of the education committee attended meetings of every social, religious, and fraternal group in town to explain the plan and enlist the support of all citizens. With the approval of the community, the Non-Partisan Committee for the Selection of School Board Candidates now follows this procedure:

1. In November, the Committee chairman meets with the presidents of the sponsoring organizations and asks that they name their new appointees before the end of December. (Half the membership retires each year, members serve two years and the sponsoring organizations each make one new appointment each year, except the Home and School Association which makes two.)

2. In January, the first meeting of the new Committee is held.

3. Early in March, committee members go back to their sponsoring organizations, make brief talks on the nominating committee's function and request recommendations by letter from the public on the incumbents and others who qualify as candidates.

4. Publicity releases go out to the local paper, carrying the names of the current Non-Partisan Committee and stressing qualifications for good school board members. People are asked to write letters recommending names of possible candidates, accompanied by a statement of qualifications.

5. Toward the end of March, the committee considers all suggestions, reads letters from the public and votes. Once the slate is decided upon, the committee fulfills the legal requirements of filing nominating petitions for the candidates it sponsors.

This is the fifth year that the Non-Partisan Committee has been functioning in Dobbs Ferry. The public responds each year with a substantial number of letters of recommendation for the vacancies. The community has elected all the nominees of the committee with one exception. — *Citizens and Their Schools*, September 1951.

THE MARCH OF DIMES—Because the March of Dimes has not kept pace with the march of polio, the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis is compelled to enlarge its 1952 drive from two weeks to a full four-week period. The appeal will start on January 2, instead of January 15, and run through January 31st. The devastating impact and aftermath of polio in the last three years of record-breaking incidence found the National Foundation, at the beginning of 1951, pledged to care for a cumulative caseload of an estimated 45,000 patients. In addition, help was sought by four out of five of this year's victims, whose numbers still are growing. It became apparent in July that the money raised in the 1951 March of Dimes would not be sufficient to take care of the situation. It is expected that the National Foundation will again end the year about \$5,000,000 in debt for patient care expenditures alone. At this writing, cases have edged ahead of last year's. No one can accurately predict the full toll for 1951. The 1950 epidemic sneaked up across the country, reaching its peak in late September, striking 33,351 children and adults, in what proved to be the second severest polio year in our history.

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The House of Representatives of the 82nd Congress has passed H. R. 4473 which includes, among its many provisions for revenue, exemption to schools from the Federal Admission Tax. The section of the bill, which applies to school activities for which an admission charge is made, states that any admissions "which, if no part of the net earnings received from religious, educational, or charitable entertainments inure to the benefit of any private stockholder or individual," such admission charges are exempted from the Federal Admissions Tax. It further states the admission tax "shall not apply in the case of admissions to athletic games or exhibitions if the proceeds inure exclusively to the benefit of an elementary or secondary school." The bill does state, however, that "carnivals, rodeos, or circuses in which any professional performer or operator participates for compensation" are not exempted.

A revenue bill similar to this House bill has also been passed by the Senate. There are several differences in the bills passed that have to be "ironed out" in Senate-House Conference Committee meetings before being sent to the President for his signature or veto. The section which applies to the above enumerated provisions is the same in both bills and from "hill gossip" the provisions affecting school admissions are certain of being accepted when the entire bill becomes law. If and when the bill receives the signature of the President, it shall become operative "on or after the first day of the first month which begins more than ten days after the date of the enactment of this act for admissions on or after such date."

Your association has been keenly interested in the tax exemption provisions in this revenue bill as it progressed through Congress. It feels certain that the bill will become law and, if passage is enacted on or before October 20, schools will be exempted from paying a Federal Admission Tax on and after November 1. Watch for the next issue of your BULLETIN for information as to the final disposition of this bill.

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